



JAPAN'S WAR CRIMES

Past and Present

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EDITOR'S NOTE

It has been 50 years since the criminal militarist clique suffered defeat, but their ghosts still strut about in Japan.

The verdicts of the International Military Tribunal for the Far East, which punished Tojo Hideki and other top war criminals after World War II, are openly challenged, and the aggressive war which brought untold misfortune and calamity to the Korean and other Asian peoples is falsely represented as a “just war for self-preservation and self-defence” and as a “liberation war” to defend the Asian countries against Western imperialism.

Shiina Etsusaburo, the foreign minister of the Sato government of Japan, went so far as to say, “If it was Japanese imperialism that administered Taiwan, annexed Korea and made Manchuria cherish the dream of concord of five races to defend Asia against the teeth of Western European imperialism and maintain the independence of Japan, it was honourable imperialism.” (Takasaki Soji, *Prototype of Absurd Remark*, Japanese ed., p. 258.)

This was a danger signal that Japan was ready to repeat its past imperialist crimes accompanied with aggression and plunder for nearly one hundred years from the Meiji Restoration of 1868 to her defeat in 1945. Such an absurd remark is persistently repeated even now, at the close of the 20th century.

Former German President Richard von Weizsäcker, who visited Japan in August 1995 on the occasion of the 50th

anniversary of her defeat, said, "One who is not ready to come to terms with his history will not understand where he is today or why. One who denies the past may repeat it at any time." It was no coincidence that the world's public expressed its sympathy with him.

We believe that at present, on the eve of the 21st century, it is far from meaningless to reconsider the war crimes committed by Japan. In addition, it is timely in the light of the actual situation in the Asian countries, where more than 70 per cent of the population is ignorant of the truth of Japanese aggression in the past.

In place of what we want to say we quote the editorial of the US newspaper *Los Angeles Times* dated March 1, 1999, whose gist it is: The well-known warning of an American philosopher that he who does not look back on the past repeats it, is of universal significance; Does not the issue of Japan mean that she not only did not look back on her past but also has almost refused to offer her postwar generation the opportunity to learn from the past? Japan which is reluctant to assume a sincere attitude to her modern history insults her victims and does serious damage to her own nation.

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1. CRIMES AGAINST PEACE

1) THE MILITARIZATION OF JAPAN

The International Military Tribunal for the Far East, which tried the Japanese war criminals after World War II (May 1946-November 1948), stipulated that a crime against peace means participation in an aggressive war with or without a declaration of war, or in planning, preparation for, starting or execution of a war in violation of international law, treaties, agreements or mutual guarantees, or in the common planning or plotting in pursuit of the above-mentioned acts.

A crime against peace means a crime aimed at destroying world peace, justice and relations of trust by bringing another nation to its knees or conquering it by force of arms instead of settling disputes and differences of opinion arising between nations on the principle of international law, treaties, peace and justice. This crime includes the whole process, from ideological and mental preparation for an aggressive war to political and military preparation for and the direct execution of an aggressive war.

Judging by this criterion, we can trace the source of Japan's crime against peace back to militarization; the militarization of Japan was the root cause of all her war crimes.

The Japanese military bureaucratic clique which seized power through the Meiji Restoration in 1868 made the brigandish “Proposal for the Conquest of Korea”*, which aimed at the seizure of Korea by force of arms, its state policy and was bent on its implementation. The “Proposal for the Conquest of Korea” itself was basically a doctrine of criminal aggression, because it constituted a crime of advocating war for the conquest of Korea while violating the former neighbourly relations.

* Japan, which had taken the path of capitalist development belatedly after the Meiji Restoration, began an all-out invasion of Korea and other Asian countries, calling for the “conquest of Korea” and the building of a “rich country and strong army”, with a view to making up for her political and economic backwardness in comparison with the Western powers and “covering the loss” in her trade with them. The “Proposal for the Conquest of Korea”, which aimed at the seizure of Korea by force of arms, was the predecessor of the plan for the “Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere”.

Immediately after Japan was forced to open her doors by the Western powers in 1854, the Japanese militarists raved, “It will be difficult to maintain Japan’s independence without annexing Korea, Manchuria and other places. If we are to improve our armaments, equip ourselves with warships and replenish our guns as early as possible, we must immediately explore Hokkaido, seize Kamchatka and Okhotsk, grasp the opportunity to coax the Ryukyu Islands... reprove Korea for her discourtesy, take away Manchuria from the north, and seize Taiwan and the

Philippines in the south. We must build up national power and subjugate easily obtainable Korea, Manchuria and China.”

After the Meiji Restoration, the “Proposal for Conquest of Korea” was advocated directly by the leaders of the bellicose reactionary government of Japan, and became the basic issue of national policy closely associated with the ambition of conquest of the Asian continent.

They said, “Korea borders Manchuria in the north and Qing (China) in the west. Its conquest will lay the foundation for the maintenance of the Empire and is essential for acquisition of Manchuria in future. If other countries forestall us, disaster will befall the state”. (Tabohashi Kiyoshi, *Study of the Modern Relations between Japan and Korea*, Japanese ed., Vol. 1, p. 305.)

Thus the “Proposal for the Conquest of Korea”, which was the first scheme for conquest of the continent by the Japanese militarist war maniacs, was an evil aggressive plan for the conquest of Asia and the world as a whole, which was characterized by unusual bellicosity and brutality.

The hostile relations between Korea and Japan created by the Japanese invasion of 1592-1598 were removed by the “Kiyu Treaty” concluded in June 1609, and peaceful relations were restored between the two countries. Later, trade, communications and travel by people between the two nations proceeded normally in accordance with custom and in relations of trust and peace for over 260 years.

The government of Japan, which took the course of capitalist development following the Meiji Restoration,

demanded that the Korean government conclude an unequal and subjugating treaty on the plea of the “restoration of diplomatic relations”. Thus, the Japanese government attempted to realize the “Proposal for the Conquest of Korea” by diplomacy.

When the Korean government turned down this demand, the Japanese authorities resorted to conquering Korea by force of arms.

The enormity of the “Proposal for the Conquest of Korea” was that it was not merely confined to the conquest of Korea but was aimed at invading the Asian continent on the basis of this. The Japanese militarist bureaucratic government led the country to militarization with a view to realizing their criminal aggressive design.

What served as the cornerstone for the militarization of Japan was the absolutist emperor system. This system was the ideological and spiritual pillar of Japanese militarism.

The Japanese militarists used the superstitious emperor and worship doctrine, which held that the emperor was the “Son of Heaven,” as the symbol of “national unity”. The basic aim of emperor worship was to deceive the broad masses of the nation and make them cannon fodder for wars of aggression.

The Japanese militarists were able to use emperor worship, a medieval superstitious doctrine, for the militarization of the country due to the backwardness of Japanese society in those days. Although, following the Meiji Restoration, Japan embarked on the path of capitalist development, the feudal relations of production still held sway in the

countryside, due to her backwardness and weakness.

Tens of millions of peasants, who were far removed from modern civilization and were still steeped in medieval ignorance, served as the social setting for the dissemination of the doctrine of emperor worship.

To strengthen the absolutist emperor system, a political and economic foundation had to be laid.

The Meiji government first of all smashed the decentralized shogunate ruling system and established a centralized militarist bureaucratic ruling system based on emperor worship in 1869, by advocating “return of the land and people from the feudal lords to the Emperor”, the “abolition of clans and establishment of prefectures” and “reform of government organization”.

The Meiji government carried out the so-called “rearrangement of the caste system”, “adjustment of stipends” (adjustment of the system of stipends given to the samurai warrior class in the past) and “reform of the land tax”, with a view to extending the social class foundation of the emperor system, and thus rearranged social class relations in favour of the government of the centralized emperor system.

With the so-called “reform” of the caste system, the former caste system which was divided into samurai, peasants, handicraftsmen, merchants, butchers and outcastes was replaced by a caste system divided into those of the royal blood, the peerage, shizoku (descendants of samurai) and the common people.

The emperor and the imperial clan had a supremely privileged status and still retained their feudal authority. The peerage included feudal lords and aristocrats. Samurai constituted the shizoku class. The rest belonged

to the class of the common people. The so-called “reform” of the caste system was a measure to strengthen the class foundation of the emperor system.

The “reform of the land tax act”, which the Meiji government proclaimed and enforced in July 1873, legally opened the way for the landowners to increase their exploitation of the peasants. As a result of the “reform of the land tax”, the farm rent increased from the former 61 per cent to 68 per cent.

The Meiji government protected and fostered the privileged financial groups, and made them the mainstay of its militarist policy, while developing the munitions industry in an irrational manner by plundering the peasants. It continued to protect Mitsui, Ono and other privileged merchants who had been under special protection since the period of the Tokugawa shogunate (1603-1868), and at the same time helped the new financial groups by handing over to them state-owned enterprises, which had been founded by exploiting the masses of the people, and granting them state subsidies. The Mitsubishi financial group was typical of such financial groups.

The privileged financial groups, which were distinct from the middle and small capitalists in general, were called political financial groups, because they were fostered under special political protection by the Japanese militarists. The main characteristic feature of the political financial groups was that they entirely served the aggressive war policy of the Japanese militarists.

The landowners and the political financial groups were the twin pillars which supported Japanese militarism.

The real criminal nature of the emperor cult, which gave rise to the militarist policy of Japan, lay in that it made the Japanese people deformed children who blindly worshipped the emperor in the “Yamato spirit” (Japanese chivalry*), and offered them up as victims of the continuous policy of aggression.

* Japanese chivalry was a hypocritical system of ethics based on bravery and the “master-servant bond” (loyalty to one’s master and feudal lord), and served as the spiritual and moral support of Japanese militarism.

Originally deriving from “battlefield ethics” for warriors to abide by, it gradually developed into an abstract moral idea to which the class interests of the warriors were added, and which was perfected as a system of morality that assumed a religious character as a result of mutual interaction with Shinto religion, Buddhism and Confucianism.

“Bravery”, which is the foundation of the feudal-military Japanese code of behaviour, and the “love of honour” deriving from it, with the ideological background of vanity and a reckless self-sacrificing spirit, induced the ignorant warriors to become maniacs who behaved wildly on the battlefield, losing all rationality. The “master-servant bond” led the feudal warriors to extreme adventures and fanatical massacres in the name of so-called “loyalty”. The “master-servant bond” became one of the main factors which stimulated the bellicose and rough spiritual and moral features of the Japanese feudal warriors, together with the spirit of self-respect which entailed challenging even death for bravery, honour, fidelity to comrades and other “virtues”.

The feudal-military Japanese code of behaviour which constituted the moral idea and spirit of the feudal warriors of medieval Japan spread the virus of militarism over the whole of the state and social life. After the Meiji Restoration, it became the ideological and spiritual pillar of Japanese militarism, together with the ultranationalist idea of “fidelity to the emperor and patriotism” and the Shinto religion.

What held an important place in the militarization of Japan was the formation of an immense standing army.

The Meiji government proclaimed and enforced the Conscription Law in 1873.

The decentralized system of feudal clan armies raised by the local lords in the feudal period was abolished, and a national conscription system was established. The purpose was, first, to shore up the emperor system by depriving the feudal lords of their armies, and, secondly, to create an enormous armed force by extending the source of manpower, which had formerly been limited to persons of samurai origin.

With the introduction of conscription, a new modern standing army was formed in place of the 400,000-strong samurai army, which had been engaged in murder and plunder.

The Japanese army founded by the bureaucratic warlord government was based on a strict caste-rank system; persons of samurai origin alone could become officers, and the top officers were all from the upper echelons of samurai of good lineage. Workers and peasants, shouldering the heavy burden of military service, were subject to harsh discipline enforced by the

officers and had to become cannon fodder for the wars of aggression of the Japanese militarists.

The army was indoctrinated with the idea of worshipping the emperor, racism and national chauvinism, and was subject to severe discipline.

The Meiji government went to enormous expense right from the beginning to form a huge standing army.

The military expenditure amounted to 24,420,000 *yen* between October 1871 and November 1872, accounting for more than one third of the national budget.

The Meiji government expanded the munitions factories handed over to it by the former local feudal lords, and at the same time hastily built the Tokyo Ordnance Factory in 1868, Osaka Ordnance Factory in 1870, Sakabashi Powder Mill in 1874, and other munitions factories.

The process of the militarization of Japan, designed for overseas aggression, was a crime against peace. This was clearly shown by the course of later overseas aggression by the Japanese militarists.

The Japanese militarists took Korea, which is the nearest country to Japan geographically and occupies an important strategic position in Northeast Asia, as the first target of her overseas aggression.

Japan provoked the *Unyo* incident *¹ in August 1875, and forced the unequal and subjugating “Kanghwa-do Treaty” *² (Korea-Japan protection treaty) on Korea in February 1876, against the background of an extensive naval bombardment. It requires no detailed explanation that this aggressive act by Japan was a crime against peace which destroyed security and peace between

Korea and Japan and spread seeds of discord between the two countries.

*1 and 2: The *Unyo* incident was provoked by the Japanese militarists, who were hell-bent on overseas aggression following the Meiji Restoration, seizing the opportunity of the retirement of the Taewongun, the regent who held the reins of power in Korea at that time and who had pursued a hard-line policy toward Japan, and the seizure of power by the flunkeyist and capitulationist Min family.

In August 1875, without any warning, the Japanese warship *Unyo* intruded deeply into Kanghwa Bay, which is part of the territorial waters of Korea in the West Sea. Korean coast guard fired warning shots, whereupon the *Unyo* bombarded the coast, killing over 600 people.

Japan mobilized a large armed force in February 1876 and demanded an “apology” for the incident. Japan then forced a trade treaty upon the government of the Ri Dynasty. It is called the “Kanghwa-do Treaty”.



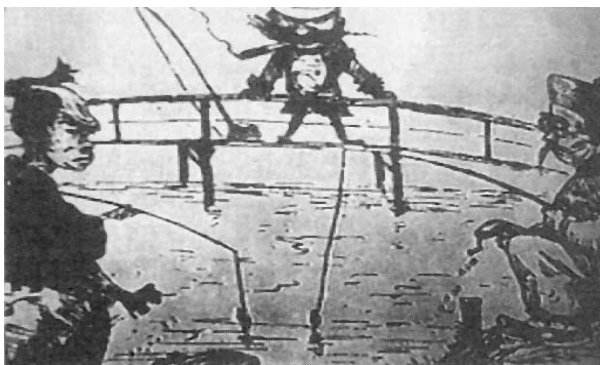
The Japanese troop surrounding the conference hall to force the conclusion of the “Kanghwa-do Treaty”

From then on, the relations between Korea and Japan became the relations between aggressor and victim of aggression, and the history of war crimes committed by Japan against Korea began.

2) THE SINO-JAPANESE WAR AND THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR

At the International Military Tribunal for the Far East Ballantyne, an “authority on Far Eastern problems” in the US stated, “Japan has continuously pursued a militarist expansionist policy since she emerged as a modern state” and, in illustration of this, cited the Sino-Japanese War, the Russo-Japanese War, the Manchurian incident and the China incident (1937), and testified to the fact that the interval from one policy of aggression to the next was merely a period for consolidating its foothold. (*Tokyo Trial*, Vol. 1, 1962, Tokyo Trial Proceedings Publication Society, p. 537.) This view of Ballantyne is a fairly correct view of the characteristic features of the aggressive war policy of Japan.

Following the signing of the “Kanghwa-do Treaty”, Korea was reduced to a semi-colonial dependent country. Following in the footsteps of the Japanese aggressors, the American and other Western capitalist powers, vying with each other, forced Korea to conclude unequal and subjugating treaties toward the close of the 19th century and at the beginning of the 20th century. As a result, Korea was turned into a field of grim struggle between these powers for spheres of influence.



The cartoon in the then newspaper satirizing China, Japan and Russia seeking to hold control over Korea

The countries which stood in the van of this struggle were Japan and Qing Dynasty, China. This was because China knew perfectly well that Japan's invasion of Korea directly threatened its own territorial integrity.* However, Japan was in no position to invade a big country like China at that time.

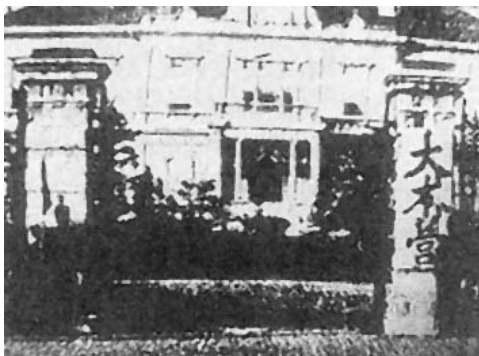
* With the emergence of the "Proposal for the Conquest of Korea", following the Meiji Restoration, Japan pursued her "continental policy" with a view to establishing the "Great Japanese Empire".

Already toward the close of the 18th century, Honda Toshiaki, the spokesman of the shogunate, said, "It is necessary to build a great stronghold extending from Kamchatka to China in the west". Sato Nobuhiro (1765-1850), his contemporary, stated, "... no territory in the world is easier for the Japanese empire to attack and seize than China's Manchuria."

In the middle of the 19th century, Edo Shinpei stressed, “As China is a contested land in Asia, whoever fails to occupy it will face danger, and whoever obtains it will dominate Asia. By stabilizing and readjusting its politics, whoever dominates China will, in the end, be able to contest the United States of America, Russia and Portugal for domination of the world”.

From 1893 on, Japanese policy debates centred on the revision of the unequal treaties concluded with Western countries in 1854 and on the “advocacy of national power”, the gist of which was a hard-line foreign policy.

The Movement for Equal Treaties with Western Countries and National Sovereignty, launched by the “national sovereignty” faction following the establishment of the “Imperial Headquarters” in June 1894, changed to the Movement for the Cultivation of National Power against Korea and China and for Supremacy of the Nation”. The adherents of this movement came to advocate persistently a war for the conquest of China.



The General Headquarters established in Japan in 1894

In this situation, Japan drew up a ten-year plan for the expansion of armaments and prepared for another war of aggression. Japan pushed ahead with its ten-year plan for the expansion of armaments in parallel with the acceleration of militarization of the country.

From the 1880s on, the militarization of Japan was further expedited, this time oriented toward strengthening the emperor system.

In 1884, a new peerage system was established. The former peerage had been restricted to the former feudal lords and members of the imperial court. Under the new peerage system, the senior bureaucratic warlords and “subjects who have rendered meritorious service for the restoration of imperial rule” too came to belong to the new peerage. According to family status and the quality of the “meritorious services”, the peerage was divided into five ranks—duke, marquis, earl, viscount and baron. The peerage was hereditary, and its members were eligible for marriage into the imperial family. The aim of the establishment of this peerage system was to enhance the authority of the former nobility, bureaucrats, military officers, big landowners and capitalists, and further consolidate the emperor system socio-politically by linking them with the emperor by ties of blood, and thus building a bulwark for the defence of the emperor system.

The Japanese warlord rulers changed the *Daijokan* system (the cabinet in the early years of the Meiji reign) to a regular cabinet system* in 1885, concentrating all power except military power on the cabinet. The cabinet was directly answerable to the emperor. The Department of the Imperial Household, which was

separate from the cabinet and dealt with the affairs of the Imperial Household, was set up, and the post of Lord Keeper of the Privy Seal, who did not belong to the cabinet nor to the Department of the Imperial Household, was instituted. The Lord Keeper of the Privy Seal performed the duty of constantly assisting the emperor, while keeping the seal of the state and the privy seal of the emperor. The reform of the central administration was carried out with a view to strengthening the power of the absolutist emperor and the bureaucratic system of the military caste headed by the emperor.

* The military dictatorial government which enforced the rule of the warrior (samurai) class after its emergence in medieval Japan was called the shogunate government.

The shogunate rule weakened the power of the emperor, who was a mere figurehead for nearly 700 years.

In the 1860s, the power of the shogunate government gradually began to pass to the imperial court. Eventually, on November 8, 1867, the shogunate government consented to the “Restoration of Imperial Rule” (which meant transfer of power to the emperor), which put an end to the military rule which existed for 676 years after Kamakura shogunate government and the rule of the emperor was restored. In January 1868, the imperial court made clear the “basic line of the restoration cause” by publishing the Ordinance on the Restoration of Imperial Rule. The restoration government designated that year as the first year of Meiji.

The Meiji Restoration overthrew the medieval shogunate and brought about the beginning of capitalist development

under a constitutional monarchy. At the same time, it established the bureaucratic ruling system of the military caste under the emperor, in which the bellicose feudal samurai and some of the bureaucratic nobility monopolized power. Following this, the militarist elements which had germinated and flourished in the areas of politics, the economy, military affairs, ideology and culture during the feudal shogunate rule were protected and fostered in the new capitalist environment.

Decree No. 69, dated December 22, 1885, of the *Daijokan* provided the framework of the cabinet system by reviving the medieval *Daijokan* system on modern lines. According to this decree, six from among ten members of the cabinet were to be of samurai origin. This made clear the military feudal character of the first cabinet, headed by Ito Hirobumi. It laid the socio-political foundation for the promotion of militarization of the country from above by force.

The absolute power of the emperor was legally fixed by the “Constitution of the Japanese Empire”, adopted on February 11, 1889.

The constitution stipulated that sovereignty lay in the emperor, and defined him as sacred and inviolable. The cabinet and all officials were not answerable to the Diet or the nation, but only to the emperor. The Diet consisted of two Houses—the House of Peers and the House of Representatives. The two Houses held equal status. This meant that about 300 peers and men belonging to the imperial clan held a status equal to that of 50 million, the Japanese population of those days. The Diet was only

to enact laws, and the veto power rested with the emperor. Different kinds of limitations prevented working people from taking part in elections to the Diet, which actually had no power whatsoever.

The Meiji government legally fixed the absolute power of the emperor in the constitution, which made it possible to further strengthen the militarist ruling system.

In October 1890, the Japanese government proclaimed the notorious Imperial Rescript on Education*, with a view to providing an ideological pillar for the emperor system.

* This document clarified the basic principles of the doctrine of the supremacy of the emperor, exalting the emperor system, the citadel of Japanese militarism, and preaching blind worship of and submission to the emperor.

It stipulated that “state education must make the emperor the base of all morality”, that the nation must obey the emperor blindly, taking “loyalty and filial piety” derived from the old feudal Confucian doctrine as the bedrock of national ethics. The Rescript was based on the “Imperial Instructions to Servicemen” proclaimed in January 1882, which runs in part, “I am the commander-in-chief of the army, your commander-in-chief. Therefore, you are my hands and feet, and you must look up to me as the head.” It takes “civil education in loyalty to the emperor and patriotism involving obedience and absolute submission to the emperor and self-sacrifice” as the theme of education under the emperor system. (Takeda Kiyoko, “Formation of the Idea of the Emperor System”, *History of Japan*, Vol. 16, 1962, Japanese ed., p. 302.)

According to the “education programme for primary schools” published in 1891, prime importance was attached to the subject of “ethics”, which preached worship of and obedience to the emperor; Empire Day (the anniversary of the legendary Emperor Jinmu’s accession), the birthday of the emperor and other memorial days came to be major school celebrations.

The danger of militarization of Japan and its criminal character lay in that it was a part of the preparations for overseas aggression.

While stepping up the militarization of the country, the Meiji government drew up a ten-year plan for the expansion of armaments, designed for provoking an aggressive war against China, and concentrated all the state’s efforts on it.

The ten-year plan, drawn up in December 1882, envisaged completion of the reorganization of the land army by the division system within ten years beginning in 1884, and the building of 32 naval vessels, including five warships and 12 torpedo boats, in eight years for the navy.

In the 1880s, the Meiji government directed its greatest efforts to building up an immense aggressive armed force, and a large proportion of the state budget derived from expropriation of the peasants, the main taxpayers in Japanese society in those days, was squandered on armaments.

In 1880, Chief of the General Staff Yamagata stated, “Insufficiency of finance is no reason for not expanding armaments. A strong army is the foundation of a rich country; a country cannot be rich without a strong

army.” Despite Yamagata’s bombastic statement, the Japanese people of those days regarded themselves as living in a “poor country with a strong army” instead of a “rich country with a strong army” underlining the fact that the strong army had been built with the taxes extorted from hungry people.

As a result of the ten-year plan, Japan’s armed might rapidly expanded.

In 1890, Japan had seven divisions, including a guards division, six MP corps and about 10,000 farm soldiers in Hokkaido (soldiers who guarded outlying districts while supporting themselves by farming.)—53,000 soldiers on active service in all. If soldiers on the reserve list are included, the strength of the armed forces increased to 256,000, whereas in 1873 the strength of the Japanese land army had been only 11,600. The strength of the Japanese army increased more than 22 times in a little over 15 years. As to the increase of naval vessels, in 1873 Japan has two armored ships, one wooden ship with an iron framework and 12 small wooden boats, whereas in the 1890s there were 25 warships (total displacement of 51,000 tons) and 10 torpedo boats. The increase in the number of naval vessels was accompanied by their upgrading with the latest technology of those days.

Along with the expansion of armaments, the Meiji government reorganized the command structure of the army, in favour of execution of a war of aggression.

In December 1878, the Japanese government set up the General Staff, detaching a staff bureau from the Ministry of War. The General Staff, placed directly under the emperor, held a status equal to that of the

cabinet, and was to command and control all military activities, including overseas expeditionary operations, free from any interference by the cabinet. Resolutions adopted by the General Staff could be sent straight to the Ministry of War for execution. The Ministry of War was placed under the General Staff.

The independence of the General Staff meant that the politics of the country was controlled by the bellicose bureaucratic military clique.

The Japanese constitution legally guaranteed the independence of the supreme command of the military, which gave the military authorities the possibility of provoking a war at their own discretion, free from interference by the Diet or the government.

Japan set up a supply committee for military mobilization in April 1893, and enacted a wartime decree from the General Headquarters in May, setting up a separate naval command. This meant that Japan had already completed preparations for war in 1893.



Jon Pong Jun, the leader of the Kabo Peasant War of 1894

At the beginning of 1894, when a large-scale peasant uprising (the Kabo Peasant War) broke out in Korea, Japan, which had been watching for a chance to provoke a war with China and drive China's influence out of Korea, sent her army to Korea under the pretext of protecting

Japanese citizens resident there. This was the first step in making Korea a colony of Japan.

On the night of the second of June 1894, Japanese Prime Minister Ito Hirobumi convened in his official residence an extraordinary cabinet meeting, at which a resolution on military interference in Korea was adopted and the strength of the army to be mobilized was fixed.

Meanwhile, in compliance with a request from the corrupt and inefficient government of Korea's Ri Dynasty for assistance, China sent three warships and 1,500 soldiers to Asan Bay on June 8-12 to occupy the Asan-Kongju area, and was fully prepared to suppress the peasant army. China gave notice of the dispatch of the troops to Japan, in accordance with the Tianjin Treaty concluded in 1885, and informed the Japanese government and the Russian minister in Beijing that she would withdraw her army immediately after the suppression of the insurgents. Taking advantage of the fact that China had sent troops to Korea, Japan used the Tianjin Treaty as a plausible pretext for interference in Korea, and landed over 10,000 troops on Wolmi Island from June 9 to the end of June. The troops then occupied the Seoul-Inchon area.*

* A news dispatch from Kyoto, Japan, dated July 23, 1894, reported: "Emeritus Professor Nakazuka Akira of Nara Women's University said that newly discovered documents showed that the occupation of Seoul by Japan on the eve of the Sino-Japanese War in 1894 was a plot prearranged deliberately by the Japanese Imperial Army.

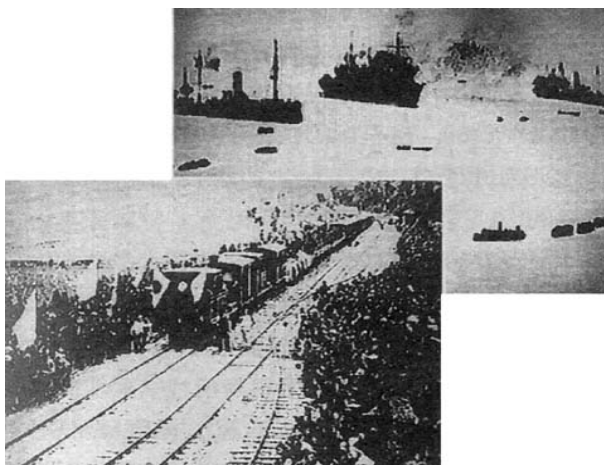
"...the newly discovered materials show that Japan had an obvious intention to invade Korea in those days, and

reflected the formal explanation of the military authorities that Japan sent troops to Korea to help her to recover her sovereignty.

“Japan declared war on China formally on the first of August, following a series of conflicts between the Japanese and Chinese armies sent to suppress the revolt in Korea.

“This war marked a turning-point in the modern history of Japan. Following the war, the military authorities came to hold the reins of power in Japan, and Japan’s foreign policy came to be oriented to territorial expansion in Asia.”

Thus, Korea was turned into an arena of military confrontation between the Chinese and Japanese armies, and the Sino-Japanese War became inevitable.



Japanese troops leaving their country to join the Sino-Japanese War

Japan, which had been hell-bent on preparing a war of aggression against China for over ten years, perfidiously attacked Chinese warships off Phung Island in the West Sea of Korea without a declaration of war, at dawn on the 25th of July 1894, and dealt a mortal blow to them. Troops of the Japanese land army which had occupied the strategically favourable area began to manoeuvre on the 25th, and attacked the main force of the Chinese army in the Songhwan area in Chungchong Province on the 29th, dealing an annihilating blow to it. They then extended their operations northward, and crossed the Amnok River on the 25th of October. The whole of Korea was enveloped in the flames of war. Calling the Japanese forces the “army of civilization against barbarity”, the government-patronized press of those days in Japan stated, “The Japanese spirit nurtured since foundation of the country will brilliantly shine in the national trial.” (Watanabe Kichiro, *Anecdotal History of the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese Wars*, Japanese ed., p. 198.)

The Sino-Japanese War ignited by the “civilized” Japanese was an aggressive criminal war by which they intended to occupy Korea and further extend their aggression into China.

The Japanese invaders forced the feudal government of the Ri Dynasty to conclude the Temporary Cooperation Agreement on August 20, and the Treaty of Korea-Japan Alliance on August 26.

The treaty, which was also called an “attack and defence alliance”, was a brigandish treaty which charged Korea with the military expenditure and supply of materials needed for the execution of the Sino-Japanese War.

As in all other aggressive treaties, in this one Japan stipulated expropriation of manpower and material resources from Korea under the plausible pretext of consolidating the “independence” of Korea and their use for the war. It is common knowledge that in international law any treaty concluded forcibly under military occupation is null and void. Therefore, it does not require detailed explanation that all the acts committed under the plea of the provisions of the illegal treaty were international crimes.

After provoking the Sino-Japanese War, Japan continued to send large numbers of troops to Korea and expropriated immense human and material resources from Korea to supply their needs.

The Japanese forcibly commandeered young and middle-aged Korean people and cattle, and used them for the transport of war materials to meet the increasing demands from the front, including that for provisions.

Concerning this, the Japanese themselves said, “Our army set out to capture Asan, expecting to take five days in all-four days marching to and back from Asan, and one day for the battle. But the supplies of manpower and cattle were insufficient previous to the dispatch of the troops. So we decided to take emergency measures. We chose over 20 nimble soldiers from the troops and added an equal number of policemen to them, and sent them to the roads near Seoul (leading to Ryongsan, Roryangjin, Tongjakjin, Hanganri and Tongdaemun) to capture draft cattle whether they were loaded or not.” (*Record of Hard Experience in Korea*, Japanese ed., pp. 59-68.)

This is an account of how the combined brigade led

by Major General Oshima expropriated means of transport of war materials before leaving Seoul for the battle of Songhwan on July 25, 1894. It clearly shows that the Japanese did not hesitate to steal anything they deemed they needed.

The Japanese army was a group of brigands engaged in plunder and murder in Korea, the combat area between Japan and China.

The Japanese troops which surrounded and attacked the Korean royal palace on July 23, 1894 stole all the priceless national treasures handed down from generation to generation, and carried away different kinds of modern rifles and guns by raiding armories in Seoul.

The Japanese troops stole provisions, weapons and various goods and treasures when they raided the state-owned stores. The Japanese troops which intruded into the Ryongin area on July 26 destroyed and plundered the state-owned store as well as the household effects of the local peasants. The Japanese troops which entered the Sosa area near Seoul on the 28th-29th of July stole over 980 sacks of rice from the state-owned granary. These details are given in a book *Camping Diary*.

The Japanese army committed most atrocious acts of plunder in Pyongyang. Availing themselves of the opportunity of Pyongyang being vacated on the eve of the battle for the city on September 15-16, 1894, the Japanese troops swarmed there like hungry wolves, and destroyed and plundered the property of the state and people at random. According to doctored Japanese data, the Japanese army stole over 4,600 *sok* (One *sok* equals about 5 bushells—Tr.) of rice, over 250 horses, 100 kilograms of gold, 420 kilograms of silver and

28,240,000 brass coins in Pyongyang. (*Sino-Japanese War*, historical materials, Vol. 1, pp. 214-215.) Of course, this was merely the loot the Japanese army carried away from the state-owned stores. If the property of the people they destroyed and plundered were included, the amount would be tremendous.

The criminal acts of the Japanese army were not confined to plunder of property, but brought immense misfortunes and sufferings to the people themselves. The Japanese army compelled young and middle-aged Korean people to transport military supplies or build military roads without feeding them properly. In case they faltered from exhaustion, Japanese soldiers threatened them at bayonet-point, with the absurd accusation of “violation of military law” or “disobedience to orders”, and shot or beat them to death without hesitation.

During the Sino-Japanese War, towns and villages along the roads between Inchon and Seoul, Pusan and Seoul, Wonsan and Seoul, Wonsan and Pyongyang, and Pyongyang and Uiju, along which the Japanese army passed, were reduced nearly to ruin. The destruction along the road between Pyongyang and Uiju, along which both the Chinese and Japanese armies passed, was particularly severe. The records of those days said, “Merchants and people on the tract of several hundred kilometres between Uiju and Pyongyang took refuge, and even government officials fled and hid themselves. In Jongju, burned-out houses straggled for almost two kilometres. Broken pots and vessels were scattered on the roads. Carts could not be found, and there were no stalls selling food on the road. (*Modern History of China*, Vol. 1, Part 1, p. 265.)

The wicked Japanese army not only took away the material wealth of the Korean people and murdered innocent people, but also destroyed and stole at random the precious national cultural wealth which had been created and carefully preserved for several thousand years.

The Japanese began plundering dolmens and the ancient tombs of the Three Kingdoms period in different parts of the country at the beginning of the 1880s, and ransacked ancient tombs on a large scale following the Sino-Japanese War.

Soon after the provocation of the Sino-Japanese War, the Japanese drew up a document titled, Wartime Method of Collection of Chinese Treasures and instructed the army to apply it.

The contents of this document show how brigandish it was:

“The aim of collecting and buying... treasures in wartime is as follows: First, the root of our culture has a close relationship with those of China and Korea, and there arises the necessity to compare our culture with that of those countries for clarification of the character of our own culture. Hence it is a duty of great importance for scientific study to collect the national legacies of neighbouring countries on the continent.

“Secondly, our country can be called the treasure-house of East Asia. There are many national treasures of China and Korea in our possession, which are not found in their countries of origin. Further complement of them requires the collection of core, treasures of Asia in our country, which will make it possible to display our national power, make our country the home of Orientalism and promote our industry. It is an act

glorifying the country and worth doing, using every opportunity not only in peacetime but also in wartime.

“Thirdly, the advantage of wartime collection is that rare treasures which could not be obtained in peacetime can be acquired.

“Fourthly, another advantage of wartime collection is that rare treasures are obtainable at a price much cheaper than in peacetime.

“Fifthly, yet another advantage is that the way of transporting heavy goods can be found more easily in wartime than in peacetime.

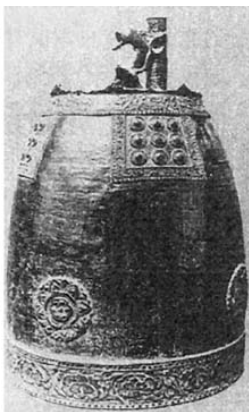
“Sixthly, wartime collection is necessary to prevent rare treasures from being destroyed. Although it is said that it happens in all countries that treasures are destroyed in war, no country has suffered heavier destruction than China did from olden times. It is also necessary to preserve treasures for the world. Wartime collection is most advantageous from this point of view.

“Seventhly, wartime is convenient for making ventures inadmissible in peacetime.

“Eighthly, wartime collection of treasures will commemorate victory in the war forever and greatly enhance the prestige of the country.

“Ninthly, in wartime collection, purchase and careful treatment should be effected so as not to violate international conventions.” (Nakazuka Akira, *Study of the Japanese-Chinese War*, p. 241.)

Can clearly as be seen in this programme for the plunder of cultural goods, the Japanese publicly proclaimed that the aim of plundering the rare cultural goods of Korea and China was to commemorate “victory in the war” forever. This shows unequivocally



The Japanese imperialists looting the cultural relics of Korea and part of the plundered cultural assets

that the Japanese militarists were the destroyers of human civilization and challengers to the civilized world.

The Sino-Japanese War further aggravated the relations between Korea and Japan by destroying the foundation of the stable and peaceful life of the Korean people in all fields, including those of politics, the economy, military affairs and culture.

Japan, emerging victorious in the Sino-Japanese War, intended to seize Korea as her exclusive colony and, using it as a stepping stone, extend her influence to Manchuria. The China-Japan Peace Treaty concluded at Shimonoseki on April 17, 1895 established Japan's dominance over Korea, and stipulated that China should hand over to Japan Taiwan Province and certain islands belonging to it, the Pescadores Islands, the Liaodong Peninsula and the islands in the east of the Gulf of Liaodong (in the north of the West Sea of Korea) which belonged to China's Mukden Province. Moreover, China had to pay to Japan two hundred million standard Chinese silver coins as war reparations.

Rapid expansion of the Japanese forces in Korea and Northeast China came to conflict with the interests of other capitalist powers. In particular, Japan was confronted with Russia, which schemed to advance southward from the Far Eastern region of Siberia. The contradictions between the great powers brought about the "intervention of three countries."

On April 23, 1895, three days after ratification of the Shimonoseki Treaty, Russia, France and Germany, which all saw their interests in Manchuria threatened, sent to the Japanese government the following note of

“friendly advice”, urging it to give up its attempts to dominate the Liaodong Peninsula:

“The conditions of peace Japan has proposed to China include the former’s occupation and possession of the Liaodong Peninsula. But we deem that such a step will not only pose a perpetual threat to the capital city of China but also make the independence of Korea only nominal, and further disturb peace in the East for ever.

“Hence, out of sincere friendship, we advise the Japanese government to give up its plan for the permanent occupation of the Liaodong Peninsula.” (*History of the Japanese Militarists’ Invasion of Korea during 1868-1910*, p. 323.)

Japan had emerged in the international arena as a fledgling militarist country, but as yet it had not enough strength to fight Russia, which was a world power. The Japanese aggressors made frantic efforts to hang on to the Liaodong Peninsula, resorting to every trick, but could not withstand the “intervention of three countries”. The Japanese authorities informed the governments of the three countries on May 5, 1895 that they would give up their right to possession of the Liaodong Peninsula, in return for 30 million yen, which was stipulated in an “additional treaty” on the return of the Liaodong Peninsula concluded with the Chinese government on the eighth of November.

The “intervention of three countries” further intensified the conflicts and antagonisms between the great powers, and deepened the antagonism between Russia and Japan over the latter’s invasion of Korea, although their hostility did not lead to a head-on collision for the time being.

In those days Russia was still in a state of confrontation with England, and the Siberian railway, which Russia was building to assist its advance to the Far East, had not yet been completed. So Russia considered that a direct clash with Japan was premature. Japan, meanwhile, needed time to recover from the fatigue of the Sino-Japanese War and readjust her forces.

This led to a temporary compromise between Russia and Japan, but such a compromise could not last long.

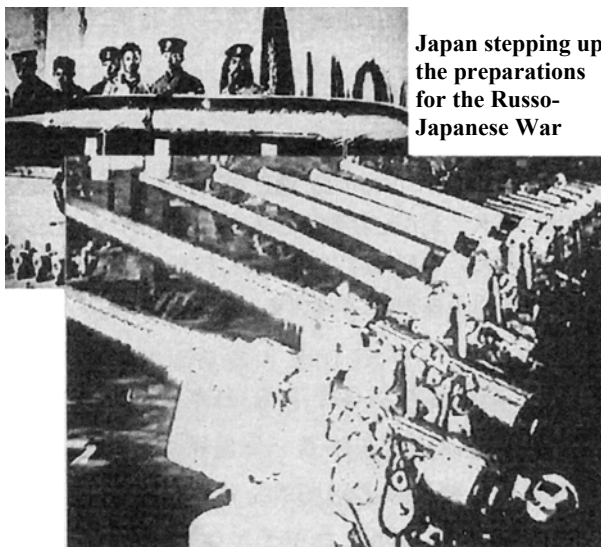
Japan, which had received a severe blow from the “intervention of three countries”, devoted all its national power to renewed war preparations, going through unspeakable hardships and privations.*

* When the Liaodong Peninsula was to be returned, following the “intervention of three countries,” the emperor said to Prime Minister Ito: “We should not make undue haste in taking the peninsula. Through the last war, we came to know the geography there and the sentiments of the people. Before long, the opportunity to fight will arise again in Korea or somewhere else. Then we may take it.” (Sasaki Takayuki, “His Majesty Meiji and Subject Takayuki”, *The Modern History of Japan*, Vol. 1, Japanese ed., p. 162.)

Mortified at the loss of the Liaodong Peninsula, Japan emphatically “implanted thoughts of revenge against Russia, the mastermind behind the intervention, among the people” in preparation for a new war, and stepped up expansion of armaments, saying that “war is inevitable within ten years.”

The military expenditure of Japan rose to 150

million *yen* in 1903, whereas it had been only 73 million *yen* in 1896. In addition, 275 million *yen*, accounting for 75 percent of the 345 million *yen* Japan had received as war reparations from China, was appropriated for the expansion of armaments. Military expenditure in the period from the end of the Sino-Japanese War to the beginning of the Russo-Japanese War amounted to 860 million *yen*. (*Relations of the Imperialist Powers in Northeast Asia in the Period Covering the Close of the 19th Century and the Beginning of the 20th Century*, Korean ed., p. 76.)



**Japan stepping up
the preparations
for the Russo-
Japanese War**

Drawing up a ten-year plan for the expansion of armaments, Japan intended to build up a standing army of 150,000, wartime armed force of 600,000 and a total of 220,000 tons of naval vessels.

In 1890, on the eve of the outbreak of the Sino-Japanese War, Japan had an army of 53,000 on active service (256,000 if soldiers on the reserve list are added), and over 51,000 tons of naval vessels. In comparison, in the following ten years the strength of the standing army increased about three times, the number of servicemen on the reserve list 2.3 times, and the total tonnage of naval vessels more than 4.3 times. (*Outline History of Diplomacy in the Russo-Japanese War*, Russian ed., p. 39.)

The Japanese rapidly increased the munitions industry along with the expansion of armaments. They developed the iron and steel industry so that it constituted the foundation of the war industry by building the Yahata Iron and Steel Works with an investment of 12 million *yen* in 1897. On this basis, they installed and put into operation two special steel furnaces at the Kure Works in 1899, and built the Shimose Chemical Works in the same year. In 1900 a four-ton open-hearth furnace in the Osaka Works began operation. In 1901 the open-hearth furnace began to be rebuilt into an electrical furnace, and from 1903 on, gun barrels began to be made at this works.

The building up of the iron and steel industry was geared to military use instead of to civilian use, and constituted part of Japan's war preparations.

The Japanese also rapidly developed railway and marine transport for military purposes. The military authorities completely held sway over the



Yahata Steel Works

Railway Council set up in accordance with the Railway Construction Act of 1892. The deputy chief of the General Staff became chairman of the Railway Council, and the construction of railways was geared primarily to military purposes. The Japanese consecutively issued the Navigation Encouragement Act and the Shipbuilding Encouragement Act, with a view to complementing the plan for the expansion of the navy, and granted an enormous amount of state subsidy to the shipbuilders capable of remodelling big ships as cruisers in wartime.

Thus Japan greatly increased the strength of its army and navy, and rapidly developed its war industry with a view to expediting its preparations for war against Russia, its leading competitor for the invasion of Korea.

An important measure to militarize the ruling system of Japan after the Sino-Japanese War was to bribe and convert the Japanese Diet and the political parties of landowners and capitalists into simple ornaments embellishing the militarist emperor system. The emperor used a “secret political fund” of an enormous amount of money, accounting for more than half of the dividends on shares of the Japan Mail Steamer Company, to bribe the Japanese Diet and the political parties of landowners and capitalists, such as the Kenseikai and Seiyukai.

As a result, the Japanese Diet and political parties entirely reduced to the Japanese military clique’s for execution of an aggressive war and not even traces of bourgeois democracy could be found in Japan. This meant that the government under the emperor system further strengthened collusion with the landowners and

privileged financial groups and that the socio-political foundation for militarization of the ruling system was consolidated.

The ruling system of the state placed on this basis was further militarized. In March 1899, the government enacted various repressive laws, such as Abolition of Free Employment of Officials Appointed by the Emperor, Ordinance Pertaining to the Limitation of Civil Officials and Ordinance Pertaining to Punishment of Civil Officials. These steps ensured that only those who were faithful to Japanese militarism were eligible to be high-ranking officials of the government; civil officials were limited in their authority and were punishable at any time in case of disobedience to the execution of militarist policies.

In April 1900 the Japanese government laid down a regulation stating that only general officers on active service were eligible to be ministers and deputy ministers of war and the navy, which made it possible to strengthen decisively the prerogative of the Army General Staff and the Navy Command, already set up independently of the government and the Diet. This system paved the way for the military clique to provoke an aggressive war at its discretion at any time, without the approval of either the government or the Diet.

Thus the Japanese emperor system was more firmly established as the power of militarism, and this power ensured the absolute independence of the emperor system, making it a “military feudal imperialism” through military monopoly, retaining the semi-feudal patriarchal system.

Japan intensified suppression of her people while

militarizing the ruling system. In March 1900, the government enacted the Security Police Act by reforming the former Meetings and Political Associations Act.

This repressive law guaranteed the freedom of political activity of landowners and privileged financial groups in every way while ruthlessly suppressing the workers' and peasants' movements. The notorious Security Police Act was one of the evil fascist laws which deprived workers and peasants of their democratic liberties and political rights, and a major lever for militarizing Japanese society.

Militarization of the country was the socio-political source of the provocation of an aggressive war and, consequently, part of the direct preparations for the provocation of a new war by the Japanese militarists.

Japan expended considerable efforts to ensure the backing of the US and British imperialists before provoking the Russo-Japanese War.

Fearing the Russia's occupation of Manchuria might encroach upon their concessions in China, the United States and England schemed to pit bellicose Japan against Russia to weaken the latter and broaden their own footholds in Manchuria. Japan, which had been watching the diplomatic manoeuvres of the great powers closely, decided to get the backing of the United States and England, availing herself of the contradictions among the great powers.

The "Anglo-Japanese alliance", formed under the manipulation of the United States in 1902, created a decisively favourable situation for Japan, which was expediting her war preparations. Russia, which had

massed large armed force in Manchuria to counter Japan's preparations for war, occupied Ryongampho in the northern part of Korea in April 1903. In response to this, Japan stepped up her war preparations, including purchasing advanced warships from England; at the same time, she conducted "formal negotiations" with the Russian minister to Japan in August that year, at which she asked Russia to recognize Japan's exclusive sway over Korea and withdraw its army from Manchuria.

In January 1904, when conflict between Russia and Japan was clearly looming, US President Roosevelt declared to Germany and France, which leaned to the side of Russia, that the United States would "assist" Japan to the end if they took the side of Russia and exerted pressure upon Japan. This isolated Russia internationally and gave encouragement to Japan to provoke a war.

The Japanese fleet left Sasebo naval base on February 6, 1904, and made a surprise attack on the Russian fleet off Inchon and Lushun, in Korea and China, respectively, on the eighth of February. It sank the cruiser *Varyag* and the gunboat *Kerets* in the port of Inchon, and destroyed two Russian warships and one cruiser in the port of Lushun. The same day, Japanese advance troops illegally landed at Inchon and occupied Seoul. On the ninth, Japan declared war on Russia. Thus the aggressive Russo-Japanese War started.

As antagonism between Russia and Japan became acute, the Ri Dynasty government solemnly declared neutrality on November 23, 1903, to cope with the Russo-Japanese War in future. The dispatch of Japanese

troops to Korea was a flagrant infringement on the Korea's neutrality declaration and also a serious challenge to the international law.

The aim Japan pursued in the war was to occupy Korea as her exclusive colony by driving out Russian forces from Korea and Manchuria, and extend her sphere of influence in Manchuria and China proper. The object Russia pursued in the war was to extend the sphere of her control by countering the United States and England, which planned to hold sway over Korea and the rest of East Asia, using the Japanese militarists as their "shock troops".

Consequently, the Russo-Japanese War was an imperialist aggression war for colonies and spheres of influence between Russia and Japan, and part of the confrontation in international imperialism.

Japan received positive support and assistance from the United States and England, whereas Russia received the support of France and Germany.

The Japanese were able to pursue the war because they received political, military and financial assistance from the United States and England. During the Russo-Japanese War, the total military expenditure of Japan amounted to 1,716 million *yen*, while 800 million *yen*, which accounted for almost half the military expenditure, was supplied by the United States and England.

The Japanese army imposed a heavy burden of war upon the Korean people.

The Japanese troops which entered Korea commandeered at random any land they needed under the pretext of "military necessity". They forcibly took away land without consultation with or obtaining the

previous approval of the Korean government or Korean owners, claiming that their actions were justified by the terms of Korea-Japan Protocol. (*Diplomatic Documents of Japan*, Vol. 37, Part 1, Japanese ed., p. 615.) The Korea-Japan Protocol was illegal and invalid aggressive document fabricated under the military pressure of the Japanese army. Therefore, the protocol could not serve as diplomatic and legal grounds for the Japanese to deprive Koreans of their land.

The Japanese also commandeered Korean people into slavish labour by force of arms. The Japanese requisitioned 114,500 men for the transport of war supplies in the five months from June to October 1905, and forced over 200,000 local inhabitants without remuneration to lay railway tracks on the Seoul-Sinuiju railway in Hwanghae Province and South and North Phyongan Provinces from October 1904 to the close of 1905.

The Japanese troops indiscriminately robbed people of their property wherever they set foot. In a report sent to the foreign minister of his country, Japanese Minister to Korea Hayashi said, "It is a fact that land, houses, labour, money and other goods were used without appropriate compensation under the name of military necessity." (*Diplomatic Documents of Japan*, Vol. 38, Part 1, Japanese ed., p. 950.)

The records of those days reveal the great misfortune and calamity the Russo-Japanese War incurred on the Korean people: "Plunder by the foreign troops is excessive", "Foreign troops burn houses and kill people," (*Chronicles of King Kojong*, Vol. 44, dated June 28, the eighth year of Kwangmu) "The people in the regions haunted by the foreign troops are raising

cries of distress, and their plight is beyond description.” (*Ibid.*, dated June 21.)

During the war, the Japanese imperialists issued large quantities of military scrip for use by their troops in northwest Korea as currency. The aim was to obtain the goods needed for the war on the spot, while economizing on specie, avoiding increased issue of “hard currency” *yen* notes and protecting the national treasury. As there was no guarantee that the scrip would be redeemed by the Japanese government, this amounted to disguised plunder.

During the war scrip denominated at a total of 140 million *yen* was issued, and most of it was used in Korea. As a result, the Korean people suffered added material and financial loss.

The Japanese forced King Kojong of the Ri Dynasty and the Korean government to pay “military aid money” amounting to 200,000 *yen*. The real payer of the “military aid money” extorted by Japan was, of course, the Korean people.

In January 1905, the Japanese army seized the Lushun fortress Russia had vaunted as “impregnable”, routed the main Russian force in the suburbs of Shenyang on March 10 and sank the Russian Baltic Fleet* in the straits of the South Sea of Korea on May 27-28. They spoke boastfully, but in fact were in no position to continue the war.

* 13 ships from a total of 20 ships of the Baltic Fleet were sunk or destroyed and one ship was captured.

Japan could not depend on other countries for war

funds any longer. The US and Britain did not want Japan to emerge in too strong a position after the war, for fear that they might lose their supremacy in their scheme to invade Asia. Consequently, Japan could not expect any more military or economic aid from them. It then resorted to the intensification of extortion by taxation, introduction of a commercial monopoly system, “donations”, imposition of public loan bonds, and other means, but failed to raise the required war funds because of price rises, impoverishment of the people and an unprecedented crop failure in 1905.

During the 20 months following the outbreak of the war, the Japanese army lost 43,119 men killed in action; more than 170,000 were wounded and 63,601 of 220,000 people who had been suffering from diseases died. This means that more than 40 per cent of the total strength of the army was consumed. As a result, the Japanese army suffered an acute shortage of military strength and a dearth of weapons and munitions.

Although the Japanese army claimed that it had won a “great victory” at Lushun and in Liaoyang Province, it had not enough forces to pursue the Russian army, and particularly not enough men to hold the occupied area even for half a year. There was a shortage of young and middle-aged men because over 1,080,000 had already been drafted for military service and compulsory labour.

In order to avoid the bitter fate of self-destruction, Japan was actually eager to use its “victory” in the battle in the South Sea of Korea in May 1905 as a good opportunity for ending the war.

At that time, Russia was in a similar state. The Russian army was equipped with better weapons than

the Japanese army, and the forces which had suffered defeat in Liaoyang retreated and preserved their main strength. However, defeat after defeat at the front and revolutionary turmoil at home compelled Russia to discontinue the war.

Russia intended to use victory in the anti-Japanese war as a good opportunity to extend the sphere of its influence in Asia and check the revolutionary advance of the people at home. But the war resulted in a crushing reverse for Russia. The fall of Lushun dealt a heavy blow to Russia, and harsh oppression and exploitation by the Russian landlords and capitalists on the excuse of war austerity greatly stimulated the spirit of the working people for struggle. Mass uprisings of the workers and peasants began, following “bloody Sunday” in January 1905, and at last developed into the Russian revolution of 1905.

The US felt uneasy about the development of revolution in Russia. At that time, more than anyone else, US President Roosevelt feared the victory of the revolution of the Russian people and the fall of the Czarist system, which was the pillar of reaction in Europe. Roosevelt hastened to end the Russo-Japanese War and preserve the autocratic Czarist system.

The peace negotiations between Russia and Japan, which started through the arbitration of Roosevelt in August 1905 in Portsmouth in the United States, ended on the fifth of September. Article 2 of the “Portsmouth Peace Treaty” (Russo-Japanese peace treaty) stipulates that “the government of the Russian Empire recognizes that Japan has special political, military and economic interests in Korea and that it will not hinder or interfere with the government of the Japanese Empire in taking

guiding, protective and supervisory measures which it deems needed in Korea”. The treaty, which was concluded without the participation or agreement of the representative of Korea in the decision on the Korean issue, was an aggressive treaty which was null and void from the beginning, and constituted a crime which destroyed the independence and security of Korea.

The treaty ultimately enabled Japan to drive Russia, which had been her rival for control of Korea for a long time, out of Korea. At the same time, she tried to take the Portsmouth treaty as grounds for establishing exclusive control over Korea.

3) MILITARY OCCUPATION OF KOREA BY JAPAN AND CONCOCTION OF THE ULSA FIVE-POINT TREATY

Japan, which had provoked the Russo-Japanese War, occupied Korea militarily. Over 100,000 Japanese troops were deployed between Seoul and the Amnok River. The Japanese imperialists concocted the so-called “Korea-Japan Protocol” and the “Korea-Japan Agreement” in these circumstances, and made them excuses for aggression and military occupation, using them as instruments for direct interference in the internal affairs of Korea.

It is a well-known principle of international law that a treaty or agreement concluded by threatening a state, or the sovereign or representative of a state under

military occupation is illegal and null and void. In a telegram sent to the Russian and French governments through French teacher Mathel on July 24, 1905, King Kojong wrote that he was actually under siege, that the government of the country was utterly powerless and that he “had nothing to do with the international treaty and the treaties on concessions concluded between Japan and Korea following the outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War.” (*Diplomatic Documents of Japan*, Vol. 38, Part 1, Japanese ed., p. 661.)

After the end of the Russo-Japanese War, the Japanese imperialists entrenched themselves in Korea without withdrawing their enormous armed force, and did indescribable and irreparable injuries to the Korean people for 41 years following the Ulsa Five-Point Treaty.

A Japanese cabinet meeting held on October 27, 1905 decided on the method, procedure and date of occupation of Korea, and made Japanese minister Hayashi responsible for its execution.

The main procedure of the occupation of Korea was to force the subjugating Ulsa (meaning the year 1905) Five-Point Treaty on the feudal government of the Ri Dynasty and, on this basis, establish colonial control over Korea. The method of doing this was a simple resort to force of arms. The Japanese imperialists concentrated on Seoul their main armed force deployed in Korea for the Russo-Japanese War and, on this basis, forced Korea to conclude the aggressive “protection treaty” which provided for colonial control.

Japan expected strong opposition from the Korean people and King Kojong to the Ulsa Five-Point Treaty,

and so intended to force the king and the ministers of the government to consent to it by gathering the Japanese troops in Seoul and fixing the date as early in November 1905. Japan intended to unilaterally declare the “establishment of right of protection” as a last resort in case of failure. (*Historical Materials on the Annexation of Korea*, Vol. 1, 1986, Japanese ed, pp. 6-10, *Hara Dakashi's Diary*, Vol. 2, Japanese ed., p. 155.)

On the 16th of November the same year, Japanese Minister to Korea Hayashi Konsuke informed Japanese Prime Minister Ito Hirobumi that the Korean cabinet ministers would be called to the Japanese legation for consultation. He said that in case the matter was not settled then, and there arose the need to hold a meeting in the presence of the king, to prevent any of ministers fleeing, he would need to ask Hasegawa to organize supervision over ministers, attaching military policemen to them under the name of “convoy”. He even feared, he went on to say, that after the conclusion of the treaty some members of the cabinet might kill themselves. (Hayashi Konsuke, *My 70 Years Speak*, Japanese ed., pp. 223-224.)

To succeed in this scheme, Japan concentrated its troops in Korea on Seoul.

The *Annals of Korea* describe the situation in those days as follows:

“On the morning of the 17th of November, all the Japanese troops which were stationed in Hangang, Tongjakjin, Mapho, Sogang and Yanghwajin entered Seoul—700-800 cavalrymen, 4,000-5,000 artillerymen and 20,000-30,000 infantrymen. They swarmed everywhere, and our people could not walk even an inch

freely. The royal palace was doubly encircled, so that the senior and junior officials going in and out of it shuddered.”

On November 17-18 the Japanese troops deployed in the area of Woesongdae on Nam Hill in Seoul and one infantry battalion, one artillery company and one cavalry regiment performed a drill near Jongno just in front of the royal palace with the aim of intimidating the populace. (*Tokyo Nichinichi Shimbun*, dated November 25, 1905.)

To ensure that commands might be immediately issued should an emergency arise, on the evening of the 17th Ito Hirobumi dispatched Hasegawa, the commander of the Japanese army stationed in Korea, and Sato, commander of the military police, to surround the royal palace with infantrymen, cavalrymen, gendarmes and policemen.

The direct threats and blackmail the Japanese imperialists used against King Kojong and his ministers to force them to sign the Ulsa Five-Point Treaty constituted a sheer illegal outrage unprecedented in the world's history.

Meeting King Kojong on the 15th of November, Ito demanded that he transfer the right of diplomacy to the Japanese government, and threatened him, saying, “I express the immovably firm will of the imperial government. If you refuse, you must expect a more unfavourable result.” (*Historical Materials on the Annexation of Korea*, Vol. 1, Japanese ed., p. 25.)

Ito directly presided over the meeting of the ministers of Korea on the 17th, entirely ignoring diplomatic convention, and ordered a vote to be taken



**Ito Hirobumi and Hasegawa
entering the royal palace to force
Ulsa Five-Point Treaty**

on the treaty at his own discretion. When Prime Minister Han Kyu Sol opposed it, Ito threatened the ministers, saying, "I am performing my duty at the order of our Emperor. I will not let myself be trifled with by you."

Nishiyotsutsuji Kimitaka, a subordinate of Ito, described the proceedings as follows:

"On the 17th, Marquis Ito and General Hasegawa, who were impatiently waiting for good news in an office, suddenly entered the meeting hall, at the head of a large number of military policemen, including their commander. Impatient, Ito began intellectual test of ministers, a pencil in his mouth, ignoring Plenipotentiary Minister Hayashi, and said, 'Matter will not be settled even if you linger and meditate. I will ask each one whether he is for or against the treaty. Give clear answers. First, Prime Minister, what is your opinion?' Prime Minister Han Kyu Sol replied, 'I am flatly opposed to it.'

“... The Prime Minister began to wail aloud, and at last was taken into another room.

“Then, looking around at the others, Ito grumbled aloud, ‘If he persists in his stubbornness, he shall die.’

“Even when the treaty was ready to be signed, the Prime Minister did not appear.

“When someone wondered at this, Ito muttered, ‘He shall die!’ but he remained unperturbed.” (Nishiyotsutsuji Kimitaka, *Sad Anecdotes of Diplomacy of the Last Days of Old Korea.*)

Mackenzie, who served as a special correspondent in Korea for the London Daily Mail in 1904 -1907, noted that threats, coercion and military intimidation reminded the Korean ministers of the incident of the night in 1895 when Japanese troops murdered Empress Min. He said that the secretary of the Japanese legation threatened Prime Minister Han Kyu Sol, saying that he would “lock him up in the next room and kill him”, and that Ito personally bullied him. (Mackenzie, *From Volunteer Struggle to the March First Independence Movement*, 1972, pp. 78-83.)

In his political report sent to his country on November 20, 1905, von Saldern, who was a German diplomat in Seoul when the Ulsa Five-Point Treaty was signed, pointed out that “the document Japan ought to open to the public was entirely drawn up under coercion”.

This is the truth of the “conclusion” of the Ulsa Five-Point Treaty, which the Japanese side said was “concluded by free will and on an equal footing”.

It has been objectively proved since the days of its concoction, that the Ulsa Five-Point Treaty forced by

the Japanese imperialists on the king of Korea and his ministers was forced on the representative of the state, and was entirely null and void.

In an article published in 1906, French specialist in international law Francis Rey pointed out that the Ulsa Five-Point Treaty was illegal and invalid from the beginning, in the light of the fact that Ito Hirobumi and Hayashi Konsuke forced the king of Korea and his ministers to sign it under the guns of Japanese troops. (*All round Magazine of International Law*, Vol. 13, 1906.)

Quoting Francis Rey's article in the Harvard study draft of the treaty law drawn up in 1935, the US International Law Society, too, pointed out that the Ulsa Five-Point Treaty was illegal and invalid from the beginning. (*US International Law Magazine*, 1935.)

In his report to the 15th Session of the UN International Law Committee, which was convened in 1963 to consider the draft Vienna treaty concerning the treaty law, the special reporter quoted the Ulsa Five-Point Treaty of 1905 as an example of "imposing coercion or threat individually or on individual persons in their private capacity to obtain signature, ratification, acceptance or approval of a treaty" and pointed out that an agreement extorted by such coercion is entirely invalid. (*Annual Report of the UN International Law Committee*, 1963, p. 197.)

Kurachi Testsukichi, who was chief of the Political Affairs Bureau of the Japanese Foreign Ministry in 1910, expressed his opinion, saying, "When coercion, force or threat is imposed on a person engaged in the conclusion of a treaty, the opinion he expresses cannot be deemed

to be genuine and... therefore in this case the treaty is completely invalid”. (Transcript of the fourth term lectures at the Japanese Law School, *International Law*, 1899, p. 197.)

Invalidity of the Ulsa Five-Point Treaty also follows from the fact that it did not go through the proper legal procedure.

Before the Vienna treaty concerning the treaty law came into force it was a general international convention that in case persons other than heads of states take part in the negotiation of a treaty, they must all present their credentials for examination before or after negotiation.

Even the *Dictionary of the History of Japanese Diplomacy* published by the Materials on Diplomatic History Publishing House of the Japanese Foreign Ministry in 1986 pointed out that “they all presented credentials almost without exception in the past” before the Vienna treaty concerning the treaty law was enforced.

Article 18 of the “Official Documentation” of Korea, enacted and proclaimed in 1894, stipulates, “Credentials, letters of credence for ratification of treaties and credentials of officials to be sent to a foreign country are personally signed by the king and then stamped with the Royal Seal.” (*Chronicles of King Kojong*, Vol. 32, November 21, the 31st year of Kabo.)

Facts prove that the foreign minister of Korea, Pak Je Sun, and Hayashi Konsuke, Japanese plenipotentiary, who signed and sealed the Ulsa Five-Point Treaty, had no credentials with them. This historical fact serves as important evidence of the invalidity of the Ulsa Five-Point Treaty.

Ratification presents the ultimate token of agreement by a state being bound by a treaty. But the Ulsa Five-Point Treaty did not receive ratification by King Kojong, Korea's sovereign in those days.

Moreover, ratification was legally required by the national law of both Korea, an absolute monarchy, and Japan, an "empire".

Article 9 of the State System of the Korean Empire, drawn up in 1899, says that the emperor "concludes all treaties", and Article 18 of Official Documentation, enacted in 1894, stipulates that the "instrument of ratification" should be directly "signed by the emperor and then stamped with the Royal Seal". (*Chronicles of King Kojong*, Vol. 39, August 17, the third year of Kwangmu, *Chronicles of King Kojong*, Vol. 32, November 21, the 31st year of Kabo.)

Article 4 of the Constitution of the Japanese Empire stipulates that the "emperor has the sovereign power as the head of state", and Article 13 points out that the "emperor concludes treaties".

The Japanese, who were well versed in the situation in Korea, knew well that approval and signature by the emperor and stamping with the Royal Seal were indispensable for the conclusion of the treaty.

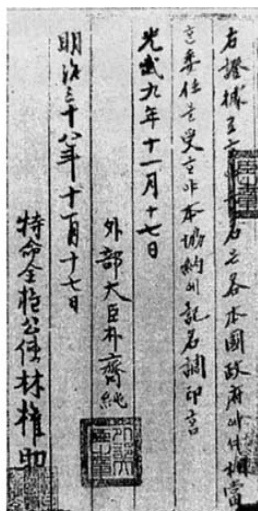
Ito met Emperor Kojong on November 15, 1905, and when the emperor said, "I cannot conclude the treaty at my own discretion," he claimed the same sovereign right as the emperor of Japan enjoyed, asking him, "Haven't you the sovereign right to superintend all affairs?" (*Diplomatic Bulletin*, Vol. 9, Japanese ed., No. 98, 1906, p. 31.) Following the "incident of the secret envoys to The Hague" on July

17, 1907, Ri Wan Yong and other stooges of the Japanese imperialists went to Emperor Kojong and tried to force him to “put the Royal Seal to the treaty, which was dated November 17, 1905.” This provides more proof. (*Hwangsong Sinmun*, dated July 19, 1907.)

But Kojong refused to approve or ratify the “treaty” to the last. Although the “treaty” was not approved and signed by Korea’s sovereign and was not stamped with the Royal Seal, it was unilaterally proclaimed as if it had been “concluded”. Herein lies its criminal character.



Stamp of the Royal Seal of King Kojong. All the treaties concluded with foreign countries ought to bear the signature of the emperor and the stamp of the Royal Seal, but the original text of the Ulsa Five-Point Treaty does not bear them



The Ulsa Five-Point Treaty was stamped with the name of Pak Je Sun, foreign minister of Korea, and the seal of the Foreign Ministry. It was not done by Pak Je Sun himself, but by the Japanese, who appropriated the seal of the foreign minister as well as the royal seal.

The Japanese had planned beforehand to steal the seal of the foreign minister.

Minister Hayashi said to Ito on November 16, 1905: "The country's seal seems to be kept with much care. Even the royal interior minister does not keep it himself. There is a special official in charge of the seal. So I must send a man to the Foreign Ministry early in the morning to keep watch on the person in charge of the seal." (Hayashi Konsuke, *My 70 Years Speak*, Japanese ed., pp. 223-230.)

The *Annals of Korea* say, "Maema Kyosaku, who was the interpreter of the legation, and diplomat Numano were sent to the Foreign Ministry to request the seal, saying that they had a royal order to do so... A large number of Japanese soldiers surrounded the Foreign Ministry to prevent the disclosure of what was going on. Kokubun Shotaro, the secretary of the Japanese legation, who had stationed himself beforehand in front of the seal depository, immediately took the seal, entered the meeting hall and stamped the treaty with the seal."

The *China Gazette* (an evening newspaper), dated November 23, 1905, said in a dispatch from Seoul: "The Japanese sent military policemen to the residence of the foreign minister, and diplomat Numano returned, bringing the seal with him, at one o'clock in the morning of the 18th. After some wrangling, the

Japanese plenipotentiary put the seal to the treaty arbitrarily ... in the morning of the same day, and declared that it was 'signed and sealed' ... Indeed the 'sealing' was done fraudulently." (*Diplomatic Documents of Japan*, Vol. 38, Part 1.)

In his political report sent to the Kaiser on November 20, 1905, von Saldern said, "The royal palace was swarming with Japanese troops and military policemen and the seals of some ministers were forcibly seized and used to stamp the treaty."

The secret envoys to The Hague said that Ito "took the seal of the Foreign Ministry and stamped the 'treaty' with it". (*Courier de la Conference de la Pays*, dated July 9, 1907)

Furthermore, the Japanese committed the illegal act of extorting the Seal of the State used by Emperor Kojong.

Declaration of the invalidity of the Ulsa Five-Point Treaty by Emperor Kojong provides the conclusive factor which proves its invalidity.

Kojong was opposed to the "conclusion" of the Ulsa Five-Point Treaty from the beginning.



**The 26th King Kojong of the
Ri feudal dynasty**

In a telegram he sent to special envoy Hulbert, who went to Washington on November 26, 1905, Kojong said, "The 'treaty' was forced upon us by military threats and under detention, and, therefore, I declare that it is invalid.

I never approved it, and have no mind to do so in future, either. I ask you to convey this to the US government.”
(From Volunteer Struggle to the March First Independence Movement, p. 87.)

In a personal message sent to the heads of state of the US, Russia, Germany and France on January 29, 1906, Kojong declared, “I did not recognize the ‘treaty’ from the beginning and did not put the Seal of the State to it. I opposed the ‘treaty’, which was promulgated arbitrarily by Japan. I never conceded the sovereign right to any foreign country. The forced treaty pertaining to the right of diplomacy has no grounds for validity, and I did not approve the one pertaining to internal affairs. I did not give the Japanese permission to install the governor-general. I did not in the least allow the foreigners to exercise the right of the emperor.”
(Taehan Maeil Sinbo, dated January 16, 1907.)



The personal message of King Kojong sent to the heads of four countries announcing that he did not put his signature and the Seal of the State to the Ulsa Five-Point Treaty

In a personal message sent to the heads of state of nine countries, including the US, England, Russia and Germany, on June 22, 1906, Kojong stressed, concerning the invalidity of the Ulsa Five-Point Treaty: "First, the signing by the ministers was done under threats and coercion; secondly, I never gave the cabinet the right to sign the document; thirdly, the cabinet meeting at which the document is said to have been signed was convened by the Japanese themselves, and consequently was invalid. I intend to bring the case to The Hague International Court in the future."

The personal messages of the emperor in which he explained the invalidity of the Ulsa Five-Point Treaty were stamped with the Seal of the State, and the so-called "treaty" was not. This is another way to judge the invalidity of the "treaty".

The feudal government of the Ri Dynasty lost its sovereignty, and was entirely deprived of the right to handle Korea's diplomacy and internal affairs under military occupation by the Japanese imperialists. Lack of sovereignty means the lack of capacity to conclude treaties. This shows that the Korea-Japan Annexation Treaty the Japanese government speaks of could not have been legally concluded, having no counterpart in international law.

As mentioned above, the occupation and rule of Korea which Japan reputedly enforced "effectively" in accordance with the so-called "treaty" lacked legal validity. Therefore, the illegal colonial rule which lasted over 40 years was a crime the Japanese imperialists committed against the Korean people.

4) JAPAN'S OCCUPATION OF MANCHURIA

Tanaka's Memorial to the Throne

As mentioned in the Tanaka's Memorial to the Throne, after the Meiji Restoration, it was Japan's consistent basic national policy to gobble up Korea, then Manchuria, Mongolia and China, and thereby dominate Asia.

The memorial which Tanaka, the then Prime Minister of Japan, presented to the Emperor on July 25, 1927 was a criminal document for aggression.

To grasp its criminal character, it is necessary to examine the contents of the memorial.

In his memorial to the Emperor Tanaka wrote, "Manchuria and Mongolia cover the three northeastern provinces of China—Fengtian, Jilin and Heilongjiang—together with Inner and Outer Mongolia. Their combined area is over 1,108,800 km², more than three times the area of Japan proper, and they have a population of 28 million, one third of Japan's.

"This region has a vast expanse of sparsely populated land, and is an object of envy among other peoples. It is incomparably rich in agricultural, mineral, forestry and other resources.

"Therefore our country intends to exploit its natural resources and attain the eternal prosperity of the Empire. Particularly, we have set up the South Manchuria

Railway Company, and invested 440 million *yen* in developing railways, iron ore and other mines, forestry, agriculture and stock breeding, under the pretext of the co-prosperity and coexistence of Japan and China... You will perceive that our rights to interests in Manchuria and Mongolia are enormous.

“Therefore, the policy of successive cabinets toward Manchuria and Mongolia is to attain the eternal prosperity of the imperial family and the state by following the instructions of Meiji the Great, extending the scale of the policy and forming a new continental policy.

“However, after the European war (the First World War—Ed.) due to changes in foreign and domestic policy... particularly due to the agreement of the nine countries at the Washington Conference, our country’s special rights and interests in Manchuria and Mongolia were restricted, and freedom of action became impossible.” (*Tokyo Trial*, Vol. 1, pp. 297-298.)

Here we see clearly how brigandish the greed of the Japanese invaders for the extensive territory and abundant natural resources of Manchuria and Mongolia was. Along with this, we can see the criminal character of the Japanese aggressors’ ambition to put Manchuria and Mongolia under their rule by depriving China of its rights in Manchuria after the Russo-Japanese War.

Tanaka went on to write: “If Japan is to conserve herself and help other nations conserve themselves, she should act by blood and iron; only then will she be able to surmount difficulties. However, the United States, a third country, will try to restrain our country resolutely by ‘pitting one invader against another’, as the Chinese say. If our country attempts to maintain the northeastern

three provinces by the blood-and-iron doctrine, then our country will be compelled to compete with the United States.” (*Ibid.*, p. 299.)

Tanaka’s Memorial to the Throne is shot through with the brigandish logic characteristic of the Japanese militarists. Moreover, Tanaka insisted that Japan’s occupation of Manchuria and Mongolia would be by no means encroachment on the territory of China, on the promise that Manchuria and Mongolia are not parts of the territory of China. Here we cannot overlook the bellicosity of the Japanese militarists, who were bent on military violence and not economic means in the scramble of the great powers for concessions in the area of Manchuria and Mongolia.

Tanaka’s Memorial to the Throne advocated that, having emerged victorious in the Sino-Japanese and Russo-Japanese Wars with political and military support from the United States, having become a colonial empire in Asia and having carried out modernization with capital and technology from the United States, after the Meiji Restoration Japan should bite and bring down the United States, as a house dog bites the heels of its master, in order to conquer Manchuria and China proper and become dominator of Asia and the world. This shows the utter bellicosity and impudence characteristic of Japanese militarism.

Tanaka also wrote as follows: “The previous Russo-Japanese War was actually the Sino-Japanese War. This shows that it is necessary first to drive out the influence of the United States if we are to control China in the future. Thus it is necessary first to conquer Manchuria and Mongolia in order to conquer China. It is necessary

to conquer China first in order to conquer the world. If China is completely conquered by our country, other nations of Asia, India and the South Seas will surely fear and surrender to us. It will make the world know that they are parts of our Orient and no country will ever dare to invade us.” (*Ibid.*, p. 300.)

In fact, this idea was the precursor of the notorious doctrine of the “Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere” later set forth by the Japanese militarists, and this tenet of aggression was later translated into practice by the top-level war criminals of Japan.

Tanaka’s Memorial to the Throne irrefutably proves the war crimes of Japan, her crimes against peace. This criminal document proves that Japan’s occupation of Manchuria and all other ensuing aggressive wars were not accidental incidents caused by some bellicose elements in the Japanese military authorities but an inevitable result of the national policy of Japan.

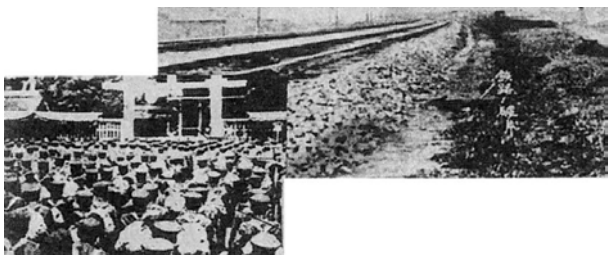
Provocation of the Manchuria Incident

On the night of September 18, 1931, the railway line of the South Manchuria Railway Company of Japan was blown up at Liutiaogou, west of Beidaying, Shenyang. Claiming that troops under the command of Zhang Xueliang were responsible for the incident, and had attacked the Japanese garrison, the Japanese militarists occupied Beidaying and seized Fengtian Airport on the morning of the 19th.

After the seizure of Shenyang, Andong, Yingkou, Changchun, Jilin, Dunhua and other big cities in

Northeast China were occupied one after another by the Japanese Kwantung Army and the army stationed in Korea, which had crossed the Amnok River. In less than five days, the Japanese army occupied almost all the vast territory of the two provinces of Liaoning and Jilin, and continued to widen the front, advancing in the direction of Jinzhou. By December 1931, they had seized the three provinces of Northeast China.

Japan's occupation of Manchuria was a serious crime against peace.



The site where the Japanese troop blew up near Liutiaogou and the Japanese troops leaving Japan for Northeast China

In fact, the explosion at Liutiaogou, which led to the occupation of Manchuria, was a plot organised and guided by Tohihara Genji, chief of the Japanese Special Services Agency in Fengtian in accordance with the plan drawn by the Kwantung Army Command before hand. The Japanese side, which caused this criminal incident, insisted that Lieut. Kawamoto and others had discovered this while on patrol, and had been fired upon by the Chinese troops on the spot. The Chinese side denied this, saying that it was a provocation committed

according to a “premeditated scheme of the Japanese army”. Taking the contentions of both sides into consideration, Lytton’s report concluded that there was no doubt that an explosion had occurred on or near the railway line between ten and twenty to eleven in the afternoon of the 18th of September. But although some damage to the line was reported, it did not retard the arrival of the regular train from Changchun. So the explosion alone does not provide a sufficient justification for military action, and the military action of the Japanese army cannot be regarded as a legal self-defensive measure. (*Tokyo Trial*, Vol. 1, p. 423.)

At the International Military Tribunal for the Far East referring to Lytton’s report, public prosecutor Darcy branded the September 18 incident a premeditated action by Japan, and pointed out that to execute this plan, Japan dispatched artillerymen to a strategic point between the Chinese soldiers, where they pretended to be digging a well. Tanaka, chief of the Ordnance Department of the then Japanese Ministry of War, testified as follows: “Colonel Idagaki, the then deputy chief of staff of the Kwantung Army, told me: ‘Previous to the September 18 incident, two 24-inch calibre guns arrived, as proposed by Colonel Nagata, the then chief of the military affairs section. These were installed in an infantry barracks. Simultaneously with the outbreak of the incident, one of them shelled the Chinese barracks in Beidaying, and the other shelled Fengtian Airport. The Chinese army gave up the airport without any resistance. Thus, things went smoothly for us in the beginning. In fight one must make a surprise attack on the economy.’

According to Tanaka's testimony, the installation of the guns was finished about ten days before the incident. The appearance of sinking a well was utilized to keep the installation of the guns top secret." (*Tokyo Trial*, Vol. 1, p. 323.)

Historical facts prove that the Liutiaogou explosion was plotted by the Japanese army. This was one of the major pieces of evidence of Japan's war crimes. As pointed out in Lytton's report, the railway line at Liutiaogou was not so seriously damaged as to interfere with the regular running of trains, and consequently, it was not an incident of such importance as to justify military action. In spite of this, the bellicose Japanese army made the incident they had caused an excuse for war, and escalated their military actions until they occupied the vast territory of Manchuria. The brigandish occupation of Manchuria was a crime which destroyed peace and security between China and Japan, and brought about a state of war.

The Fabrication of "Manchukuo"

The Japanese imperialists occupied Manchuria by force of arms and set up an illegal puppet government there, through which they enforced their criminal colonial rule.

In March 1932, Japan proclaimed the founding of Manchukuo with Puyi, Emperor of the former Qing Dynasty, as its chief executive. In March 1934, Japan announced the enforcement of imperial rule in Manchukuo and designated Puyi as "Emperor".



The Command of the Japanese Kwantung Army holding power over Manchuria

Manchukuo was nothing but a screen to cover up Japan's colonial rule, and the "Emperor" was a puppet in the hands of the Kwantung Army. All powers of legislation, judicature and administration in Manchukuo were controlled by the Japanese imperialists.

When Puyi, the "Emperor of Manchukuo", was summoned to the Tokyo International Military Court as a witness and asked by the public prosecutor "Who directed you when you were the sovereign of Manchukuo?" he stated, "Honjyo Shigeru, Commander of the Kwantung Army, and his staff officers. Particularly, Idagaki was influential."

To the question "Who made the laws when you were the emperor?" Puyi answered, laying bare the crimes of Japan: "On the surface, Manchukuo was a sovereign, independent country, but actually it was under the control of the Kwantung Army. All the ministers were Chinese, but most of the vice-ministers were Japanese..The ministers were mere figureheads, while the Japanese vice-ministers managed the actual administration. Here I am going to dwell in detail on the

administration. There was a commander at the headquarters of the Kwantung Army, and everything was done by going through a chain of command stretching from the chief of staff to the commander. In the headquarters there was Department No. 4, which handled the affairs of Manchukuo. The chief of the General Affairs Department, a Japanese, had the greatest authority in the government of Manchukuo. His authority was above that of the Prime Minister. All royal decrees and decrees of the State Council were decided in secret meetings with the chief of the General Affairs Department as chairman and the chief of Department No. 4 as vice-chairman, and with the participation of each vice-minister. We called it the Tuesday meeting. After the meeting, the vice-ministers of all the ministries made proposals concerning their particular spheres of responsibility, which were subject to the approval of the Kwantung Army. After approval, the policy could not be changed. Thus, proposals which gained the approval of the Kwantung Army became draft resolutions, which were presented to the State Council for nominal approval by the Emperor or the ministers. Other, minor affairs were handled by Japanese vice-ministers at their discretion. At these meetings, Chinese were not allowed to raise objections. Even if one did raise an objection, the chief of the General Affairs Department would not listen to it, saying that the matter in hand was an established policy. If one persisted in his objection, his life would be in danger. So the Chinese in Manchukuo were paralysed with fear, and dared not utter a word in cabinet meetings or in the meetings of provincial governors. Later, Lieut.

Gen. Yoshioka kept a close eye on me.” (*Tokyo Trial*, Vol. 1, pp. 357-358.)



**Queen Min murdered
by the Japanese**

Puyi's testimony clearly shows how tightly the Japanese imperialists controlled the puppet government during their colonial rule of Manchukuo. As he stated, the Japanese imperialists held exclusive political sway over Manchukuo, without sharing it with anyone. Those who

disobeyed the Japanese in Manchuria were murdered without exception. The death of Puyi's wife provides a typical example of this. She was poisoned at 23 years of age by Lieut. Gen. Yoshioka who had kept Puyi under observation. The sole reason for her murder was that she held anti-Japanese sentiments. The cruelty of Yoshioka presented an example of the extreme brutality, viciousness and cruelty of Japanese militarism, which was evocative of the brutality of Japanese minister Miura who killed Queen Min in 1895.

When Queen Min, who had complete control over state affairs in Korea, headed the pro-Russian faction and took a stance opposing Japanese influence, the enraged Japanese rulers formed a murder gang, including garrison forces, policemen and even gangsters and hooligans. With Miura, Japanese minister in Korea, in the van, this gang raided the Kyongbok Palace. Queen Min was hacked to death with a Japanese sword, and her body was burnt and thrown into a pond, so as

not to leave traces of crime. For the descendants of these gangsters, the poisoning of the wife of the Emperor of Manchukuo, who was a mere puppet, must have seemed a commonplace event.

Japan completely controlled and ruled Manchuria not only politically and militarily but also economically. As a result of the Russo-Japanese War, in 1905, Japan “leased” the part of the railway line on the Liaodong peninsula north of Lushun and Dalian, and plundered the abundant resources and raw materials of Manchuria and China. In particular, the South Manchurian Railway Company, which was formed in 1906, became the artery of exploitation of China’s natural resources.

In the early part of his statement giving evidence of Japan’s economic exploitation of Manchuria at the Tokyo trial, prosecutor Fox Hast said, “Japan set up provisional governments of nominal independence by force of arms in the occupied areas, enforced her will through them and carried out the plan to exploit their natural resources and industries, dealing with them as independent states on the surface. Manchukuo furnishes a good example of this. The setting up of Manchukuo was planned by the Kwantung Army and put into effect by the Japanese government.” (*Tokyo Trial*, Vol. 1, p. 445.)

In March 1933, the Japanese imperialists drew up the “programme for economic construction in Manchukuo” and took it as the basis for controlling Manchukuo’s economy.

Japan’s economic position in Manchuria was strengthened after she bought the Chinese Eastern Railway from the Soviet Union. This served as an occasion to remove the rights and interests in Manchuria of all foreign

countries except Japan. In addition, Japan set up the “Japan-Manchukuo Joint Economic Committee”, an organization to settle important problems of economic relations with Manchukuo. Its foundation presented one of the steps by which Japan gained control over the arteries of the economy of Manchuria.

In January 1937, the Japanese drew up the Five-Year Plan for Industrial Development and, in accordance with a second construction plan for it, decided to assign part of the economy to the development of resources for national defence. For this purpose, they decided to increase the production of munitions, including weapons, aeroplanes and automobiles, proclaiming the Major Industries Control Act in May the same year. In December that year, they formed the Manchurian Heavy Industry Development Company, a semi-official company, thus laying the foundation for new economic development.

These formally legal institutional instruments invented by the Japanese occupiers were criminal means by which they aimed to gain full control over the resources and production of Manchuria, and to gear all the branches of the economy to preparing the provocation of another aggressive war.

Having occupied Manchuria, the Japanese aggressors drew up a plan for the migration of six million Japanese to Manchuria over 20 years and implemented it annually. Japanese emigrants became landlords by sequestering the land of the Chinese peasants without compensation or at a trifling price, or capitalists by plundering the national capital of China. The Japanese landlords and capitalists were a social

pillar for their colonial rule of Manchuria and direct executors of an aggressive policy.

Ruling Manchuria, Japan enforced a criminal opium policy. The rulers of Manchuria officially prohibited the smoking of opium, while actually encouraging the cultivation of poppies, in which the Kwantung Army was mainly engaged, under the supervision of the chief of the General Affairs Department. The cultivation of poppies increased annually, spread to Rehe, Fengtian and Jilin Provinces. In the end, two billion *yen* for poppy cultivation was included in the special budget.

The criminal character of the opium policy pursued by the Japanese occupiers was that it was aimed at making the Chinese people opium addicts and undermining their consciousness of national independence, and at the same time, Japan would use the money obtained from opium trafficking for the execution of their colonial policy.

Japan's occupation and colonial rule of Manchuria stirred up the anti-Japanese and anti-Manchukuo sentiments of the Chinese people, and the anti-Japanese national liberation struggle lasted for 15 years thereafter. Japan entered a state of constant war after starting the aggressive war against Manchuria.

5) THE SINO-JAPANESE WAR

Strengthening of Imperial Fascism

The Japanese imperialists, after occupying Manchuria, began to move their armed forces into the territory of China proper. Finally, they provoked the Lugouqiao incident on July 7, 1937, thus sparking an all-out war against China.

Whenever the military government of Japan provoked a new war of aggression, it was its usual practice to intensify the militarization of the country prior to preparations for war. A typical instance of this was when the Japanese military clique strengthened imperial fascism prior to the provocation of the Sino-Japanese War.

The May 15 incident in 1932 and the February 26 incident in 1936 were milestones in the progress of imperial fascism. While the danger of fascism was increasing daily in Europe, the Japanese Islands were turning into a hotbed of preparations for another war in the East. The militarization of Japan was further accelerated following the Manchuria incident. The



The then newspaper comment on “the 26th of February incident”

formation of Saito Cabinet following the May 15 incident in 1932 put an end to the era of political party cabinets and ushered in the era of military cabinets in Japan, and fiery slogans such as “War is the father of creation and the mother of culture” poured forth as challenges to the world.

The May 15 incident presented an acute confrontation between political party politics and military fascist politics, which resulted in the victory of the latter. In the May 15 incident Inugai, the then Prime Minister of the Seiyukai Cabinet, was assassinated, and a cabinet led by Saito, representing the military, was formed. From then on, the politics of Japan began to move along the orbit of imperial fascism.

With the February 26, 1936 revolt, a phase opened in which the advocacy of foreign aggression by young officers began to be put into practice.

The young officers who participated in the revolt, together with 1,000 noncommissioned officers and soldiers, murdered or inflicted grave injury on the Lord Keeper of the Privy Seal, the Finance Minister, the Inspector-General for Military Education, the Grand Chamberlain, and other high-ranking government officials. The rebels raided the official residences of the prime minister and other ministers, and seized the “heart of Japanese politics” by occupying the Metropolitan Police Office, the Department of War, the General Headquarters and the official residence of the war minister.

With the suppression of the armed rebellion, raised under the slogan “Reverence for the emperor and elimination of traitorous subjects”, within four days and

with the sentencing of its leaders to death, the political situation was saved, but the February 26 incident, which is regarded as the product of discord among the military circles of Japan, indicated that Japan had reached a serious stage of descent into fascism and the establishment of a military dictatorship. The activities of the militarist forces in Japan were fraught with the danger of developing into a greater military action and another war.

While turning the ruling system of the country in a fascist direction, the Japanese militarist government was bent on making external preparations for another aggressive war.

On the 27th of March 1933, Japan withdrew from the League of Nations. This was a challenge to the international community, which had been trying to restrain Japan's policy for the extension of aggressive war. In December 1934, the Japanese government abrogated the Washington and London treaties, and set about expanding its naval forces. Japan withdrew from the London disarmament conference in January 1936. These steps were criminal ones which paved the way for unlimited aggression and war, unhampered by international treaties guaranteeing peace and security.

Japan's Occupation of North China

The Japanese army, which had conquered Manchuria, invaded Rehe between January and March 1933 and occupied different regions of North China militarily, crossing the Great Wall of China. As a result,

Beijing and Tianjin became the frontline of the defence of China.

In those days, the government organ in the regions of Hebei and Chahaer was the Jicha Administration Commission. The jurisdiction of this organ covered Hebei and Chahaer Provinces, Beijing and Tianjin. This area obeyed and enforced the ordinances and laws issued by the central government and its defence was undertaken by the 29th Corps of China, which consisted of the 37th, 38th, 132nd and 143rd Divisions.

Lugouqiao, where the July 7 incident took place, is eight kilometres southwest of the Changyi Gate in Beijing. In those days the Wanping County government seat was situated to the east, and the town wall was not a strong one. The 37th Division was stationed both inside and outside the town wall. This area was a particularly important strategic point west of Beijing.

The Japanese army which occupied Fengtai repeatedly demanded the withdrawal of the Chinese army stationed in this area, as well as the evacuation of Changxindian. When the Chinese side rejected this demand, in winter 1935 the Japanese invaders again made aggressive demands aimed at the reinforcement of the occupation army, and the construction of barracks and an airfield in the area between Fengtai and Lugouqiao. These demands were rejected by the local government of China.

Then the Japanese tried to lease or buy land in this area. Hashimoto, chief of staff of the Japanese occupation army, and other representatives of the army went to the Jicha Administration Commission, and complained that the inhabitants in that area wanted to

lease or sell their land, but the local government of China had interfered.

At this, the then mayor of Beijing said, "...In any country no one has the right to lease or concede land at one's discretion. For instance, if we intended to lease or buy land near Tokyo, your government would not permit it. Speaking generally, the paddy and dry fields or immovable property belong to the local inhabitants, and even the government can not dispose of them at its discretion. You say that the local inhabitants want to sell their land, but have you any evidence of this?" (*Tokyo Trial*, Vol. 1, p. 390.) Then Hashimoto and his party retorted, "Has Your Excellency any certificate stating that they do not want to sell it?" (*Ibid.*) When the mayor of Beijing produced the declaration of the inhabitants that they refused to sell or lease their land, Hashimoto and his party were at a loss for words, and retired. Of course, this did not mean that the Japanese occupation army had given up its invasion plan. They continued to commit military provocations in the vicinity of Beijing under the pretext of manoeuvres. In this way they tried to occupy the walled town of Wanping, taking advantage of lack of preparedness of the Chinese army. Such was the general military and political situation in the Huabei region on the eve of the July 7 incident.

The operational plan of the Japanese aggressors to gobble up China proper after the occupation of Manchuria was to separate the Huabei region from the Nanjing government first, occupy North China bit by bit, and follow this up by advancing to Central and South China. This operation was tried in 1934 and 1935, but it failed. Then they attempted to obtain exclusive

possession of economic concessions under the pretext of friendship. Instances of this are their demand for the construction of the Tianjin-Shijiazhuang railway, the development of the Longjiao iron-ore mine and revision of tariff rates in Tianjin.

Finding that political and economic penetration into North China was impossible, the Japanese military authorities attempted to make China succumb by using military threats. On the eve of the July 7 incident, Japan made a plan to commit a superior armed force to North China.

The Lugouqiao Incident

At ten past twelve on the night of July 7, 1937, Matsui, chief of the Japanese Special Services Agency, informed the Chinese side: "While carrying out military exercises near Lugouqiao, a company of the Japanese army was fired upon and thrown into temporary confusion by a unit of the 37th Division of the 29th Corps stationed there. A roll-call revealed that a soldier was missing. Tonight the Japanese army will enter the area and investigate the matter."

This was a challenge to China. The military exercise itself in the territory of another country had been a flagrant violation of international law. As the Japanese side had not given previous notice nor received permission for such an exercise, the Chinese side was not to blame for the missing Japanese soldier. In spite of this, the Japanese side informed the Chinese side by phone: "The Japanese Special Services Agency and

army units all express dissatisfaction, and will enter the walled town forcefully to start an investigation. It has been decided to surround the walled town with troops in case of a confrontation.”

Immediately afterwards and without receiving any reply, the Japanese started a military action. A battalion accompanied by six field guns advanced in the direction of Lugouqiao from Fengtai.



The Japanese troops crossing Lugouqiao Bridge

The Chinese army, which was keeping a close eye on the enemy's movements, took defensive measures. The deputy commander of the 29th Corps gave the order to his units to defend Lugouqiao and Wanping, and not let even a single soldier enter. Thus, a defensive and offensive battle was fought between Chinese and Japanese troops around Wanping. The Sino-Japanese War started with the battle for Wanping.

In the battle, fought on the 8th and 9th of July, both sides suffered heavy casualties. Finding his situation

unfavourable, Matsui proposed truce negotiations on the tenth. The Japanese side said that because the missing soldier had been found, the local conflict could be settled peacefully.

That day, the Chinese and Japanese delegates decided as follows:

- 1) Both sides shall stop all operations immediately;
- 2) The two sides' armies shall return to their original garrisons; and
- 3) The Lugouqiao and Wanping Wall shall be garrisoned by other units than the 37th Division (which had the strongest anti-Japanese sentiment in the 29th Corps).

The aim of the Japanese army in consenting to this agreement was not to settle the matter peacefully but to gain time until the arrival of reinforcements. While it consented to the truce agreement, the Japanese massed troops of the Kwantung Army for Pingjin operation behind the scenes. As a result, large-scale hostilities started again only four days after the conclusion of the truce agreement. From this developed the Sino-Japanese War, which raged for nearly the next ten years.

By starting the Sino-Japanese War, the Japanese calculated that they could bring the Chinese government to its knees in three months using blitz tactics, and thus emerge victorious. However, this was a grave miscalculation, as the ten-year history of the Sino-Japanese War showed.

The Japanese army, which provoked the Sino-Japanese War on the pretext of the Lugouqiao incident, escalated the war and tried to shift the responsibility for it onto the Chinese side. To the question, "Which side was to blame for provoking the July 7 incident?"

Colonel David Balet, the then military attache to the American Embassy in Beijing stated, "My senior officer was General Stilwell (then colonel). On his order on the morning of July 9, I investigated the situation. I reported that in my judgment the conflict was on a small scale and was not so serious as the September 18 incident. It was my firm belief that the incident could be settled at any time if Japan wished. In the whole process of the incident the attitude of the Japanese army toward the Chinese was arrogant and offensive and, in most cases, the behaviour of the Japanese army was an insult to and a direct infringement upon the sovereign rights of China, I think. In my opinion, the night military exercise which the Japanese army held near Wanping in the first week of July was an intentional provocation. The Japanese side should have known how tense the relations were between the both states and the possibility of misunderstanding and conflict which might be caused by such an exercise. The Japanese troops started to move from Manchuria to the south of the Great Wall of China only 20 hours after the Japanese troops attacked Wanping. This fact suggests that the Wanping incident served as an excuse for premeditated preparation for the second stage of war against China without a declaration of war." (*Tokyo Trial*, Vol. 1, p. 398.)

Colonel Balet's testimony is evidence that the Japanese army was to blame both for the Lugouqiao incident and the extension of war following the abrogation of the truce agreement concluded after the battle for Wanping. It had been shown that although armed conflicts between the Chinese and the Japanese armies could be settled in a peaceful way, Japan refused,

and started a large-scale war. Herein lies Japan's crime of destroying peace.

The Sino-Japanese War not only destroyed peace and security between China and Japan, but involved all the Asian peoples in the disastrous war.

6) THE PACIFIC WAR

The Ambitious Plan for the “Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere”

By igniting the Sino-Japanese War, the Japanese not only trampled upon the national sovereignty of the Chinese people and deprived them of their right to existence, but seriously infringed upon the concessions in China of the capitalist powers, the United States and Britain in particular. As a result, after the outbreak of Sino-Japanese War, contradiction and antagonism between Japan and the European and American capitalist powers began to emerge.

The military fascist government of Japan, seized with unlimited greed and bent on aggression, entered a new stage of war to drive Western influence out of Asia and place the Asian-Pacific region under her colonial rule, advocating the so-called theory of “Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere”.

The second Konoe Cabinet (July 1940-1941) issued a statement on building the “Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere”. This was reflected concretely in the

original plan, drawn up by the Total Strength Mobilization Institute of Japan in January 1942.

Explaining the “form of independent co-prosperity of East Asia” first, the original plan made clear the regions covered by the so-called “Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere” and Japan’s status in these regions. It stated, “The states and nations in the area covering the Pacific Ocean, Central Asia and the Indian Ocean shall integrate their natural resources and fix the area of secured life for independent co-prosperity for the East Asian countries and peoples. The area covering Japan, Manchuria, North China, the lower Yangtze River basin and the Maritime region of the Soviet Union forms the pivotal area for the integration of East Asia, and the Empire (Japan) is charged with the mission of guiding it.

“It is essential for this to achieve the liberation or independence of East Siberia, China, Indochina, the islands of the South Seas, Australia, India and other countries.” (Microfilm kept in the Academy of Social Sciences of the DPRK, abbreviated as Microfilm hereafter.)

These were exactly the regions which the Japanese aggressors intended to dominate and subordinate under the plausible pretext of “independence” and “liberation”.

The original plan for building the “Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere” went on as follows concerning the regions for the “integration of East Asia” under the so-called “leadership” of Japan and the sphere of defence of Japan: “For the Empire to build up its strength as the central force in East Asia, first of all, it is necessary to ensure the security of the pivotal area of East Asia. The areas for the building of East Asia are divided as follows:

“The pivotal sphere presents the sphere of survival

for the Empire, and includes Japan, Manchuria, North China, the lower Yangtze River basin and the Maritime region of the Soviet Union.

“The minor sphere of co-prosperity implies the minor sphere of self-support of East Asia, and covers the pivotal sphere, East Siberia, China, Indochina and the South Seas.

“The major sphere of co-prosperity signifies the great sphere of self-support of East Asia, and includes the minor sphere of co-prosperity, Australia, India and the Pacific Islands” (Microfilm).

The Japanese imperialists thus divided Asia into three spheres, and envisaged occupying them one by one and exploiting the natural resources of each of them under the plausible pretext of “self-support”.

They fixed each region they occupied as a so-called “sphere of national defence”, professed it to be the base of “defence of East Asia” and divided the “sphere of defence” as follows:

The basic sphere, which generally covered the pivotal sphere, for which absolute security ought to be ensured.

The defence sphere, which generally covered the minor sphere of co-prosperity, for which perfect defence against the European countries and America should be ensured.

The sphere of influence, which generally implied the great sphere of co-prosperity for which supremacy against invasion by the Western countries should be ensured.

For the time being, it was planned to secure the minor sphere of co-prosperity (sphere of defence) for the building of East Asia and for national defence and, after its establishment, gradually set to building the

great sphere of co-prosperity (sphere of influence).

The original plan for building the “Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere” referred to the “Programme for the Administration of East Asia”. It envisaged driving out hostile forces from China proper, building the pivotal sphere and forming a “friendly union of Japan, Manchuria, China and Korea” by building a “new China” and settling the issue of the Sino-Japanese War.

This was a wild criminal dream of the Japanese aggressors to obliterate the national sovereign rights of the Chinese people in the protracted Sino-Japanese War and subordinate China by force of arms under the plausible plea of “friendly union”.

The Japanese imperialists openly announced their criminal plan to gobble up China and, on the basis of that, to subjugate the whole of Asia as follows: “The area covering Indochina and the South Seas is to be included in our sphere of defence after driving the forces of Britain and America out of East Asia. For this purpose we shall wage a war against America and Britain at the same time as waging the current war.” (Microfilm)

The Japanese army, which had provoked the Sino-Japanese War and later provoked the Pacific War, planned a war against the USSR too. The “Programme for the Administration of East Asia” stated: “Eastern Siberia shall be separated from the Government of the Soviet Union and included in our sphere of defence, after we have driven the aggressive forces of the Soviet Union out of East Asia. For this purpose, a war against the Soviet Union is envisaged.”

It went on: “Australia and India are to be gradually led to independence or liberation. For this purpose, it is

likely that we will fight against Britain and her allies.”

The Japanese said that they envisaged the “building of Greater Mongolia” at a proper time, and establishing the “minor sphere of co-prosperity” within 20 years at the most.

The “original plan for building the sphere of co-prosperity” referred to the “spirit of building”, “goal of building”, “political construction”, “programme of East Asian Union”, “ideological and cultural development”, “construction policy” and “strategic policy”, for colonial rule to be established in the area “in the future” after conquering the Asian and Pacific regions. It further emphasized that, in order to hasten the building of the “great sphere of co-prosperity”, Japan should make effective use of human and material resources in the occupied areas, continuously strengthen cooperation with Germany and Italy, and contain hostile countries in Europe and America.

As can be seen, the advocacy of the “Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere” is laced with the brigandish logic of aggression that Japan should conquer and hold sway over the Eastern Hemisphere.

The fascist Japanese government under the emperor clamoured that this criminal plan was aimed at ensuring “peace in the East” and establishing a “new order in the East”. Needless to say, it was a crime against peace and a crime which would destroy peace, security and order.

The Tripartite Military Alliance of Japan, Germany and Italy

The tripartite military alliance of Japan, Germany

and Italy—known as the Axis powers—was the root cause of the war of aggression in Asia and Europe.

Following the formation of the Berlin-Rome axis in October 1936, the Japanese-German Anti-Comintern Pact was concluded in November. Its gist was that Japan and Germany should closely cooperate with each other in opposing the international communist movement. Around the time the pact was concluded, Japan and Germany also concluded a secret treaty. This treaty provided that in case one of the treaty states was attacked or threatened with attack by the Soviet Union without reasonable cause, the other party to the treaty should refrain from giving effective aid to the Soviet Union, and that the treaty states should consult each other as soon as possible, with a view to taking necessary measures for the protection of the common interests of both states.



Japan and Germany concluded the Anti-Comintern Pact

Following the conclusion of the Japanese-German Anti-Comintern Pact, Japan and Germany started behind-the-scenes negotiations to get Italy to join this alliance. The tripartite alliance was concluded on September 27, 1940, following clandestine manoeuvres by Japanese Ambassador to Germany Oshima, Japanese Ambassador to Italy Shiratori and German Foreign Minister Ribbentrop. The tripartite alliance of Japan, Germany and Italy was a criminal military alliance which overstepped the bounds of the treaty against communism and threatened the whole world. This meant that this military alliance was oriented not only against the Soviet Union, but also against all other countries whose interests were in conflict with those of the Axis powers. Following the conclusion of the tripartite alliance, the plan of Japan and Germany for world domination developed apace, and became the cause of the outbreak of the Pacific War.

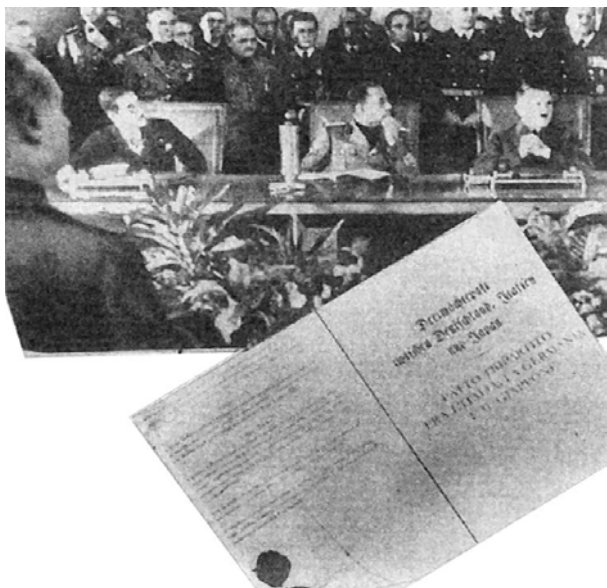
While conducting negotiations for the tripartite military alliance, Japan and Germany did not lay aside their aggressive designs even for a moment.

Japan occupied China's Hainan Island in February 1939, and established a puppet government in Eastern China, headed by Wang Jingwei, in March 1940, in an attempt to exert sway over the whole of China. When Germany invaded the Netherlands and brought France to her knees, Japan turned her greedy eyes to the Dutch East Indies and French Indochina.

With the conclusion of the tripartite alliance, the plan for a war against America and Britain was finalized, and a sneak attack on Singapore was scheduled.

Germany encouraged Japan to start the Pacific War

as part of the tripartite military alliance's strategy, while Japan urged Germany to start a war against the Soviet Union.



Japan, Germany and Italy concluded the tripartite military alliance. The document attached with signature

Germany, which concluded a nonaggression treaty with the Soviet Union in August 1939, made a surprise attack upon Poland on September 1, and occupied Warsaw on September 27. On the third of September, Britain and France declared war on Germany. Escalating the war of aggression in Europe, the German army perfidiously attacked the Soviet Union in June 1941.

As Germany started an adventurous war against the Allied Powers, the Japanese aggressors, encouraged by this, ignited the Pacific War, thus embarking on the attempt to realise their wild dream of creating the “Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere”.

The movements of the tripartite alliance both before and after the outbreak of the Pacific War give us a clear idea of what influence the Tokyo-Berlin-Rome axis exerted on Japan to provoke the war.

In his talks with Japanese Ambassador Oshima on November 29, 1941, prior to the outbreak of the Pacific War, German Foreign Minister Ribbentrop said, “There is nothing to be expected from the Japan-US negotiations. Japan ought to establish a new order in East Asia with the close cooperation of the tripartite alliance. Japan’s entering the war against America will serve the common interests of Germany and Japan.” When Oshima asked, “On what terms are Germany and the United States?” Ribbentrop replied, “Roosevelt is a madman; so there is no knowing what he will do. Germany’s attitude toward the United States is a rigid one. There is a likelihood that we may end up engaging in hostilities.” When Oshima asked, “What is the prospect of a war against the Soviet Union?” Ribbentrop said, “The Fuehrer is determined to defeat the Soviet Union far earlier than was planned at first. Next spring, the German army will cross the Ural Mountains, and drive Stalin deep into Siberia.”

On December 3, 1941, the Japanese ambassador to Italy requested an interview with Mussolini in which he requested Italy to declare war immediately after Japan started a war against the United States, and urged him

not to conclude a separate peace treaty. Mussolini assured the Japanese ambassador, saying, "It will be a continental war. I have foreseen it since September 1939."

On December 14, 1941, immediately after Japan provoked the Pacific War, Hitler explained to Japanese Ambassador to Germany Oshima how pleased he was about achieving cooperation between Japan and Germany, which had culminated in the form of a military alliance, as follows: "It was really appropriate for Japan to declare war. There was no other way. I was very excited by the news that Japan had delivered the first blow. When I realized that the other party did not want the conclusion of an agreement while I was negotiating with Poland and Russia, I made a surprise attack. In the future, too, I will take similar measures. Japan's participation in the war is of great help to Germany. Now German submarines are relieved from the unbearable psychological stress of targeting and attacking British and American vessels one by one. The total tonnage of the vessels owned by the Anglo-Saxon states is now insufficient to transport their troops for a continental invasion. We are receiving torpedoes from Japan which are particularly effective for attacking enemy vessels. Besides, it is now possible for us to make a surprise attack on Britain." (*Tokyo Trial*, Vol. 1, pp. 475-476.)

As the world war provoked by them spread, Japan, Germany and Italy concluded a military treaty for attack and defence on January 18, 1942 and, in accordance with it, concluded an agreement for operations dividing the world into two regions. Its contents were "grand",

but it was an illusion based on a miscalculation of the balance of forces. Situated too far from each other, they could establish contact with each other only by submarines and other means of long-distance communication.

They divided the operational areas between them as follows:

1. For Japan

a) The area east of the 70th degree east longitude to the west coast of the American continent, and the continent and islands in that area (Australia, the Dutch East Indies, New Zealand and others);

b) The Asian continent east of the 70th degree east longitude.

2. For Germany and Italy

a) The area west of the 70th degree east longitude to the east coast of the American continent, and the continent and islands in that area (Africa, Iceland and others);

b) The Near East, Middle East and Europe west of the 70th degree east longitude.

3. According to the situation in the Indian Ocean, operations could be carried on beyond the boundaries of the areas agreed upon above.

The gist of the general operations plan was as follows:

1. Japan should cooperate with the anti-British and anti-U.S. operations of Germany and Italy, and carry out operations in the South Seas and the Pacific.

a) Japan should destroy the main bases of Britain, the United States and the Netherlands in East Asia and attack their territories in that area;

b) Japan should annihilate the land, naval and air forces of the United States and Britain in the Pacific and Indian Oceans in order to have command of the sea in the western Pacific;

c) In case the U.S. and British naval fleets concentrated their main forces in the Atlantic Ocean, Japan should intensify attacks on merchant vessels in the whole area of the Pacific and Indian Oceans, and directly cooperate with the German and Italian navies by dispatching part of its naval forces to the Atlantic Ocean.

2. Germany and Italy should carry out operations against Britain and the US in cooperation with Japan's operations in the South Seas and the Pacific.

a) Germany and Italy should destroy the main bases of Britain and the US in the Near East, the Middle East, the Mediterranean Sea and the Atlantic Ocean, and attack and occupy their territories in that area;

b) Germany and Italy should annihilate the land, naval and air forces of Britain and the US in the Atlantic Ocean and the Mediterranean Sea, and destroy their merchant shipping there;

c) In case the British and the US naval fleets concentrated their main forces in the Pacific Ocean, Germany and Italy should directly cooperate with the Japanese navy by dispatching part of their naval forces to the Pacific.

The tripartite military alliance agreed upon the main points of military operations as follows:

1. Maintenance of communications concerning important points of the plan of operations;

2. Cooperation in economic warfare included:

a) Maintenance of communications concerning the plan for economic warfare;

b) Maintenance of communications concerning the conduct of economic warfare, important information and other necessary matters;

c) If one signatory country intended to carry on economic warfare beyond the operational areas in its charge, it should inform the other party of the plan beforehand, and secure cooperation and mutual assistance related to the use of operational bases, reinforcements, supply, rest and recreation for the crews and repairs.

3. Collection and exchange of information needed for operations;

4. Cooperation in psychological warfare;

5. Cooperation in mutual transfer of military telegraph;

6. Cooperation in the establishment of air communications between Japan, Germany and Italy, and in opening navigation routes and starting marine transportation in the Indian Ocean, as long as technical requirements are raised.

The agreement on operations drawn up by the three countries was reckless. It was based on a miscalculation of the balance of forces between friend and foe, and was nothing but a wild dream which could never be realised. Its criminal character lay in the fact that Germany and Italy intended to occupy the Western Hemisphere, and Japan intended to occupy the Eastern Hemisphere in order to place the whole world under their colonial rule. This scheme was to destroy world peace and security, and incur untold misfortunes, sufferings and sacrifices for mankind, driving it to the disastrous war.

The Zhanggufeng Incident and the Nomonhan Incident

The Zhanggufeng incident and the Nomonhan incident were Japan's preliminary military probes to test the Soviet Union.

Having provoked the Zhanggufeng incident—also called the Lake Hassan incident or the Jaojernaya Hill incident—in July 1938, the Japanese military headquarters claimed that it had been caused by Soviet frontier guards intruding on Manchurian territory, and that it had ended in a victory for Japan. The fact is that it was a premeditated provocation by Japan, and ended in a defeat for the Japanese side.

In July 1938 the command of the Japanese army stationed in Korea ended massing its armed forces, which had been dispersed in different regions, as Shigemitsu, the Japanese ambassador in Moscow, meeting Litvinov, people's commissar for foreign affairs, contended that Jaojernaya Hill belonged to Manchukuo, and demanded that it be handed over to Manchukuo.

Shigemitsu warned that if the Soviet army did not withdraw, Japan would use force. The Soviet side, producing a copy of the Hunchun Agreement, which had been concluded between Russia and China in 1886, and the original map attached to it, confirmed that it belonged to the Soviet Union, and rejected the demand of the Japanese side. (*Minutes of the Talks between Litvinov and Shigemitsu on July 20.*)

With such a turn of events, the Japanese troops occupying Korea went over to the offensive.

According to the report of the Frontier Guards Department of the Soviet People's Commissariat for Internal Affairs, the incident developed as follows:

The Japanese massed large numbers of troops in the area of Lake Hassan from July, and crossed the frontier repeatedly. Each time, they were repulsed by the Soviet army. On July 15, Japanese military policemen invaded the southern slope of Jaojernaya Hill, losing one man in the fighting.

On the 25th, a detachment of the Soviet frontier guards came under rifle and machine-gun fire, but did not respond with fire. On the 26th, one company of the Japanese army flagrantly occupied Mt. Tsyordo when the Soviet army handed over two frontier invaders to the Japanese authorities on the frontier. Early in the morning of the 29th, one company of the Japanese army attacked a Soviet detachment on a nameless height (in the area of Lake Hassan) under cover of thick mist. From July 29 to August 5, the Japanese made a fierce attack on the Soviet frontier guards of Jaojernaya Hill and other nameless hills, and occupied them all. On the eleventh of August, troops of the Red Army smashed the Japanese troops in battle and liberated the parts of Soviet territory the latter had occupied.

Concerning the aim of the Zhanggufeng incident and its scale, Akikusa, the former chief of the Special Services Agency in Haerbin, said, "In 1938, there was a conflict near Zhanggufeng. It was aimed at testing the combat capacity of the Red Army, I suppose. One division of the Japanese army stationed in Korea took

part in it, but it ended in a defeat for us. The Kwantung Army sent two divisions to the scene of conflict, but they did not take part in it, because the battle ended before their arrival.” (*Tokyo Trial*, Vol. 1, p. 494.)

The Zhanggufeng incident was provoked with a view to seizing another nation’s territory and to test the combat capacity of the Red Army. It was a war crime which destroyed peace and security between the Soviet Union and Japan.

The Japanese aggressors did not draw a serious lesson from the Zhanggufeng incident, in which they suffered a heavy military blow, and in the summer of 1939, one year later, they provoked the Nomonhan incident, which is alternatively called the Khalkhin-Gol incident.

On the map published by the Guandong Office in 1934, the boundary between Mongolia and Manchuria was marked as passing east of the Khalkhin-Gol River. It exactly coincided with the frontier indicated on the map published by the Republic of China in 1919. In 1935, one year after that, the Guandong Office issued a new map, on which the frontier was marked as passing along the lower reaches of the Khalkhin-Gol River. According to this map, all the fertile land of Nomonhan in the People’s Republic of Mongolia belonged to Manchuria. The land was of great economic value, and served as an important military base for a projected invasion of the People’s Republic of Mongolia.

The clashes between the Japanese army and the Red Army took place west of the Khalkhin-Gol River, which was part of the territory of Mongolia even according to the map fabricated by Japan.



The Japanese soldiers going on a forced march through a grassland to step up preparation for attack

According to the note “Concerning the provocation committed by the Japanese in the region of the Khalkhin-Gol River”, drawn up by the Historical Records Department of the Red Army General Staff Office, the incident developed as follows:

The Japanese had made general preparations for an attack very carefully in the manner of provocation they boasted of.

From January 1939, Japanese armed detachments started to invade the frontier of the People’s Republic of Mongolia in the region of the Khalkhin-Gol River. Invasions of the frontier numbered about 30. The big standing army group belonging to the 23rd Infantry Division and the Barukut Cavalry Regiment were concentrated in this area. The People’s Republic of Mongolia only had one small frontier post located west of the Khalkhin-Gol River to guard the frontier in this sector.

At six a.m. on the 14th of May, 300 Japanese cavalymen broke through the 7th frontier post and

progressed east of the Khalkhin-Gol River. All day long that day Japanese airplanes flew over Mongolian territory. At a quarter to one p.m. on the 15th, five Japanese light bombers attacked the 7th frontier post. They dropped 52 bombs from a height of 800 metres, and machine-gunned the post. As a result, two men were killed and 19 were wounded. Besides, the Japanese side concentrated 700 cavalymen and three trucks carrying mechanized infantry east of the Khalkhin-Gol River.

Thus, Japan actually started a battle after May 11 by dispatching the Barukut unit.

However, Japan failed to achieve her aims in the engagements in May, suffering great losses. Thereupon, she made preparations for another large-scale operation.



**Truce negotiation between the Soviet Union
and Japan in Khalkhin-Gol**

By the end of June, Japan had concentrated all the units of the 23rd Infantry Division, two tank regiments of the 7th Infantry Division and the Barukut Cavalry Regiment in the battle zone. They were reinforced by

artillery dispatched from the Kwantung Army. In addition, at least 150 Japanese airplanes were massed in the area. The Japanese army intended to make a surprise attack on and swiftly annihilate the Red Army in the area by advancing its main force to the rear of the Red Army. But the Soviet soldiers went on the offensive in August, and annihilated its Japanese opponents.

Ueda, Commander of the Kwantung Army, and Isokai, chief of staff, who directly provoked and directed the war of aggression at Khalkhin-Gol were dismissed from their posts, being blamed for the defeat. At the Tokyo trial, Gorusky, Soviet public prosecutor, ridiculed the then circumstances as follows: "The Japanese propaganda, by distorting all circumstances, tried to describe the Nomonhan incident as a failure of an attempt to invade Manchuria by the Mongolian army, which 'was repulsed by the victorious and brave Kwantung Army'. The result of the Khalkhin-Gol incident for the 'brave Kwantung Army' was that immediately after the incident Gen. Ueda, Commander of the Kwantung Army, and his staff officers were dismissed from their posts. Evidently, this was their reward for the 'victory they had achieved.'" (*Tokyo Trial*, Vol. 1, p. 497.)

The aim of the Japanese army in provoking the Khalkhin-Gol incident was to annex the People's Republic of Mongolia to the territory occupied by Japan in collusion with the advocates of self-government of Mongolia. Such a wild dream was shattered by the counterattack of the Mongolian People's Revolutionary Army, which fought in cooperation with the Red Army.

The Zhanggufeng and Khalkhin-Gol incidents were

provocations preliminary to an invasion of the Soviet Union, and a war crime which destroyed peace and security between the Soviet Union and Japan. It was natural that the war criminals of Japan who were responsible for these incidents were punished at the Tokyo trial.

Surprise Attack on Pearl Harbour and the Provoking of the Pacific War

From the Manchuria incident until the provoking of the Pacific War the Japanese fascist military government violated several international treaties, including the Hague Convention, the rules of the League of Nations and the Nine Countries' Agreement, and escalated military actions on a wide scale in China. Member nations of the League of Nations strongly demanded that Japan withdraw her army completely from China and stop the aggressive war. While conducting negotiations, pretending to be making efforts to maintain peace in the Pacific, Japan expedited preparations for war.

Let us review the whole process from the German invasion of the Soviet Union on June 22, 1941, to the Pacific War step by step.

When hostilities between Germany and the Soviet Union broke out, in Tokyo meetings were held for several days to decide on national policy as regards this situation. On the second of July a meeting in the presence of the emperor was held at the request of Tojo, minister of war. In view of the "trend of the situation",

the meeting decided on the following three points: First, continuous efforts should be made to settle the China incident; second, steps should be taken to establish the “Greater East Asia Co-Prosperty Sphere”; and third, southward advance should be considered.

The Japanese government held repeated discussions as to whether they should attack the Soviet Union so that the latter would have to fight in the west and in the east simultaneously, and then, after the expected defeat of the Soviet Union, advance across the Pacific Ocean. In other words, the Japanese were unsure whether they should advance “northward” or “southward”. At the meeting held on July 2 in the presence of the emperor, it was decided to adopt a “southward advance” as the national policy.

On July 16, the second Konoe Cabinet replaced Foreign Minister Matsuoka with Toyota and formed the third cabinet. In July Japan attacked French Indochina. At this, the U.S. and Britain placed an embargo on the export of oil to Japan, thus entering the stage of suspension of trade.

On August 28, Prime Minister Konoe proposed direct talks to US President Roosevelt under the plausible pretext of “maintenance of peace”. Roosevelt proposed holding preliminary talks concerning the major issues, prior to full-dress talks. On the 6th of September, Japan put forward the following proposal:

First, Japan shall reserve the right to unlimited military rule over French Indochina;

Second, Japan shall judge the validity of military actions in the southern regions;

Third, Japan shall decide whether the United States

should carry on economic activities on a fair basis in China or not;

Fourth, the United States shall give up all its efforts to increase its armaments in the Philippines and other regions in the Far East;

Fifth, the United States shall halt all military assistance to China;

Sixth, the United States shall lift the freezing of Japanese property, and allow Japan to obtain iron for armaments and gasoline for airplanes.

This proposal was a brigandish demand for international approval of the criminal aggressive war Japan provoked against China. The Japanese war maniacs knew well that this outlandish demand could not be officially approved by the world community. Therefore, they pretended to agree to negotiations outwardly while at the same time deciding on the date for starting an aggressive war behind the scenes. On the same day, Tojo and other militarists who were bent on igniting a war convened a meeting in the presence of the emperor at which it was decided to hasten war preparations and for Japan to launch an attack if the Japan-US negotiations had not ended satisfactorily for them by mid-October.

Handing a new proposal to US Ambassador to Japan Grew on September 25, the Japanese government urged him to get a quick reply. The new proposal hinted that Japan was entitled to wage war against the United States according to the tripartite alliance (Japan, Germany and Italy).

On the second of October, US Secretary of State Hull explained to the Japanese ambassador the US's view on the differences of opinion between the two countries and

delivered a memorandum to him containing the following four main points: First, respect for maintenance of territory and sovereignty of all nations; second, support for non-interference in the internal affairs of other countries; third, support for equalitarian-ism, including equality of opportunity in trade; and fourth, non-disturbance of the status quo in the Pacific except for the prevailing situation, which should only be changed by peaceful means. (These main points of the memorandum are the same as those of the memorandum which US Secretary of State Hull handed to Nomura, the Japanese ambassador to the United States, as the basis for Japan-US talks on April 16 the same year.)

As mid-October, the deadline for Japan to start a war, came nearer, all the members of the third Konoe Cabinet resigned in a body, including Konoe, after a quarrel broke out at a meeting in the presence of the emperor on September 6. At the senior statesmen's conference which was to propose the successor cabinet to the emperor it was decided to appoint war maniac Tojo as prime minister. He accepted the post on condition of acceptance of the following two points: First, the talks with the U.S. shall be for the time being continued while deferring the start of hostilities past the mid-October deadline, in accordance with the decision on September 6, which Kitto, minister of internal affairs, had proposed; second, the friction between the army and navy shall be removed. As a result, Tojo moved the date of starting a war, which had been set at October 15, to November 25, and then again to November 29. He also settled the issue of friction between the army and navy by replacing ministers.

With Tojo directing the Japanese government as prime minister, the situation rapidly developed in the direction of war.

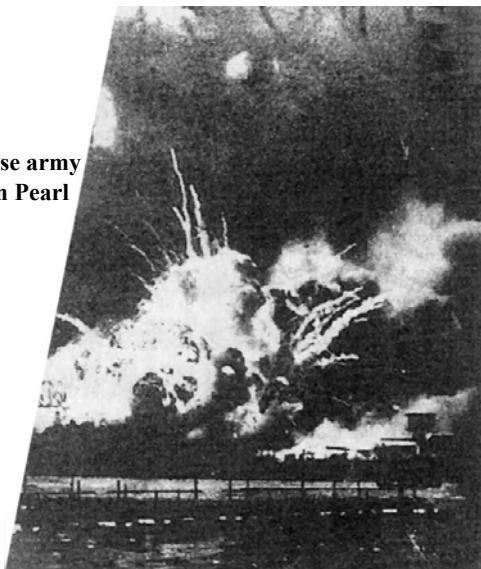
On November 5, a cabinet meeting was held in the presence of the emperor, at which Japan's policy toward the United States, Britain and the Netherlands was re-examined. It was also decided to finish war preparations by November 25 and then to go over to military action. That day, a secret combined fleet operation order No. 1 was issued, and on November 27 secret combined fleet operation order No. 2 was issued, in which December 8 was designated as Y day (the date of attack); later, X day actually became the date of attack.

Japan frenziedly hastened preparations for war, and on November 20, the Japanese ambassador presented another proposal to US Secretary of State Hull, an ultimate "proposal" which demanded that the US should rescind all its current foreign policy and recognize the gains made by Japan in its many wars of conquest and other actions.

The Japanese war maniacs issued the order to attack Pearl Harbour at dawn on November 26. Receiving the order at 6 a. m., the fleet advanced eastward and then southward. On the same day, Hull handed over two documents to the Japanese ambassador. In these he proposed that if Japan had a mind to settle the knotty problems in earnest she should accept the four points and a proposal for their execution which Hull had sent to the Japanese ambassador on October 2. However, the Japanese government made no counter-proposal, and rejected the 26th of November proposal as hindering a peaceful settlement, while Foreign Minister Togo gave instructions to the Japanese ambassador to pretend to be pursuing the negotiations.

On November 30, Nakano, chief of the Naval General Staff, and Shishimata, minister of the navy, reported to the emperor that the navy had finished combat preparations and that the operation and war would be successful.

**The Japanese army
attacking on Pearl
Harbour**



On December 1, the final meeting in the presence of the emperor and a cabinet meeting were held prior to the attack on Pearl Harbour. There, the decision to go to war was adopted unanimously, and X day was set for December 8, Tokyo time.

Japan made a surprise attack on Pearl Harbour without any prior ultimatum or declaration of war. The Pacific War started with this treacherous attack.

2. CRIMES VIOLATING THE LAWS OF WAR

1) LEGAL GROUNDS FOR DEFINING CRIMES VIOLATING THE LAWS OF WAR

Violations of the laws of war are war crimes. Violations of the laws of war include murder, maltreatment and slavish working of the noncombatants in occupied countries, deportation, murder or maltreatment of prisoners of war and ships' crewmen, murder of hostages, seizure of public or private property, indiscriminate destruction of towns or villages, and other destruction which is unjustifiable from the viewpoint of military necessity. However, war crimes are not confined to the above.

The Convention for the Peaceful Settlement of International Disputes signed at The Hague on July 29, 1899 stipulates in following gist:

Article 1. The signatory power promises to do its best to settle international disputes in a peaceful way in order to prevent resorting to force of arms in relations between powers as far as possible.

Article 2. In case of grave conflict of opinion or serious dispute, the signatory power promises to solicit the good offices or mediation of one or several nations

from among nations friendly to it, as far as circumstances permit, prior to resorting to force of arms.

This convention was signed and ratified by Japan with reservations concerning some unimportant parts.

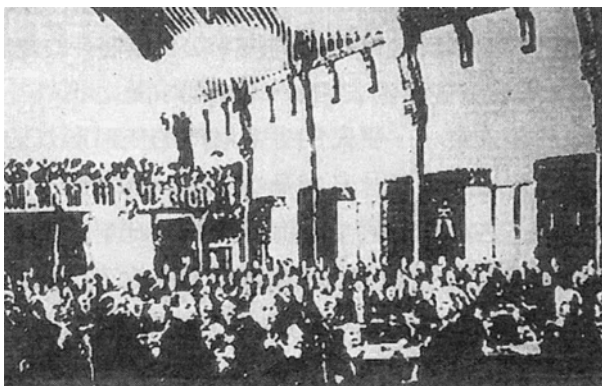
The Convention for the Peaceful Settlement of International Disputes signed at The Hague on July 18, 1907 stipulates:

Article 1. The signatory power promises to do its best to secure the peaceful settlement of international disputes in order to prevent resorts to force of arms in the relations between nations as far as possible.

... ..

Article 3. In case of grave conflict of opinion or serious dispute, the signatory power promises to solicit the good offices or mediation of one or several nations from among nations friendly to it, as far as circumstances permit, prior to resorting to force of arms.

This convention reaffirmed the convention of 1899. Article 1 of The Hague Convention No. 3 on the start of



The Hague Conference in 1907

hostilities signed at The Hague in October 18, 1907 stipulates: The signatory power recognizes that war shall not be started without clear previous notice, including the form of a declaration of starting war, supported with reasons, or in the form of an ultimatum, including conditional declaration of embarking on war.

These conventions confirm that waging war without a declaration of war or an attack such as a surprise attack without an ultimatum or previous notice or a feint attack constitute crimes violating the laws of war. They point out that an armed attack without an attempt to settle a conflict of opinion or dispute between nations in a peaceful way constitutes an aggressive war. That an aggressive war constitutes an international crime was clarified by later international laws.

The 8th Session of the League of Nations, held in 1927, unanimously approved the motion that aggressive war constitutes an international crime. Japan was a signatory power to this document.

The Hague Convention No. 4, signed in October 1907, stipulated that inhabitants and belligerents ought to be protected by the international rules deriving from the customs established between civilized nations, humanity and the general order of conscience in cases not covered by the laws and regulations applied by the signatory powers until more perfect laws of war were drawn up.

The armies and navies of the signatory powers to the various conventions signed at The Hague are under liability deriving from the customs of civilized nations on the one hand and, on the other, from the “laws and customs of war on land” established by conventions,

agreements and guarantees. These conventions, agreements and guarantees have direct binding force for these armies and navies, and provide grounds for the already established and approved laws. The stipulation of Convention No. 4 quoted above affords grounds for the customs of civilization.

The basic requirement of “agreement on the laws and customs of war on land” is that every form of infringement on the lives and property of the inhabitants who are noncombatants during combat should be stipulated as a war crime. Japan was a concerned party to the “agreement on the laws and customs of war on land”. This affords grounds, under international laws and customs, to label the barbarous acts against the lives and property of the people in the conquered countries committed by the Japanese army, which embarked on the path of overseas aggression, as international crimes violating the laws of war.

Experimentation with, and production, storage or use of poisonous gas and bacteriological weapons constitute crimes violating the laws of war.

The declaration on the prohibition of the use of poisonous gas (Declaration on the Prohibition of the Use of Projectiles Designed for Scattering Asphyxiating or Poisonous Gas) signed in The Hague on July 29, 1899, is the legal grounds for international laws and customs defining crimes of violating the laws of war. The declaration reads as follows: “The plenipotentiaries of the nations attending the Hague International Peace Conference, entrusted by their home governments, declare, according to the purport of the Petersburg Declaration of November 29—December 11, 1868, as follows:

“The signatory nations are under liability to abide by this declaration in case of the eruption of war between two or several countries.” (*Collection of Treaties and Laws*, Korean, ed., p. 125.)

The Protocol on Prohibiting the Use of Asphyxiating, Poisonous and Other Gases and Bacteriological Warfare, which was signed in Geneva on June 17, 1925, and which came into force in 1928, stipulates as follows: “The undersigned plenipotentiaries in the name of their governments,

“Because the use of asphyxiating, poisonous and other gases, as well as all similar liquids, substances and equipment in war is deservedly denounced by public opinion of the civilized world,

“And because the prohibition of this use is specified in the treaties which concern most countries,

“Declare as follows so that the above-mentioned prohibition shall be widely applied as part of the international law binding the consciences and behaviours of different nations,

“As long as the signatory powers are not the country concerned of the convention which prohibits the above-mentioned use, they recognize this prohibition, consent to extend this prohibition to the use of bacteriological warfare and agree on binding each other according to the provisions of this declaration.” (*Ibid.*, p. 126.)

Article 2 of the treaty concluded between Russia and Japan in Portsmouth on September 5, 1905 stipulates: “Both signatory powers agree on not taking any military measure capable of infringing on the security of the territory of Russia or Korea on the frontier between Russia and Korea, in order to

avoid raising any cause for misunderstanding.” (*Collection of Treaties Pertaining to Korea, 1876-1945*, Korean ed., The University of International Affairs, 1985, p. 325.)

Besides, many instances can be cited, including the treaty of peace concluded between the Allied and Associated Powers and Germany, commonly called the Treaty of Versailles, signed in Versailles on June 28, 1919, and the Nine Countries Agreement concluded and signed in Washington on February 6, 1922, which afford grounds as international laws and customs for accusing Japan of war crimes.

2) VIOLATION OF CONVENTIONS AND SURPRISE ATTACK WITHOUT DECLARATION OF WAR

Surprise attack was Japan's pattern of violation of the laws of war, and one of the regular method she used to provoke aggressive wars.

Following the Meiji Restoration, the Japanese imperialists fought one aggressive war after another, in the course of which they occupied many countries and destroyed their sovereignty and freedom. Japan provoked over 10 armed interventions and wars during the period of about half a century from the start of her transition to imperialism to her defeat in the Second World War. Particularly, Japan was in a constant state of war from the early 1930s. All the big wars in Asia in

the period of imperialism were provoked by the Japanese imperialists.

All the wars provoked by Japan without exception were started by surprise attacks without previous notice, ultimatum or declaration of war. The Sino-Japanese War of 1894-95, provoked by Japan, provides a typical example of these war crimes.

The Japanese made a surprise attack on the Chinese fleet off Phung Island near Asan Bay in Korea's Chungchong Province without a declaration of war on July 25, 1894, and, at the same time, attacked the Chinese land forces in Asan. China thereupon declared war on Japan on the first of August. Thus, the Sino-Japanese War started.

The Japanese army perfidiously made the surprise attack off Phung Island with a view to cutting off Chinese reinforcement in Asan Bay and hold the initiative in both the sea and land battle.

The Chinese sent 2,000 men in three ships, including the British merchant ship *Kowshing*, under the convoy of the warships Jiyuan and Guangyi to reinforce their troops in Asan.

Informed of this fact by its agent implanted in the Tianjin intelligence system, the Japanese fleet lay in wait beforehand and made a surprise attack on the Chinese fleet when it appeared to the northwest of Phung Island.

Following the battle on the sea off Phung Island, the Japanese army made a surprise attack on the Chinese troops stationed northeast of Asan, where the Chinese troops had taken up defensive positions in the areas of Songhwan and Kongju. Aware that reinforcements

could not reach the Chinese troops, the Japanese made a surprise attack on them.

The Tokyo trial branded the Japanese aggressors in both the Russo-Japanese and Sino-Japanese Wars.

In 1904, Japan provoked the Russo-Japanese War by attacking the Russian fleet in Lushun Bay without any previous notice or warning. The proceedings of the Tokyo trial say, “The civilized nations of the world deemed the repetition of such an act (surprise attack on Port Lushun) unbearable. Under such circumstances each country would have to be placed on constant alert, fully armed, at enormous expense, which would be an unbearable burden and stifle the peaceful business of each nation.” (*Tokyo Trial*, Vol. 1, p. 224.)

The Tokyo trial quoted Article 1 of the Hague Convention No. 3 as grounds for international laws against such criminal acts. This shows that the statute of limitations is not applicable to any kind of war crime, that is, crimes against peace, crime violating the laws of war and crimes against humanity.

The war crimes of the Japanese who provoked the Russo-Japanese War were not confined to their surprise attack on Port Lushun.

All the espionage activities of the Japanese prior to the provocation of the Russo-Japanese War and the military operations carried out by the Japanese troops before and after the provocation were violations of the laws of war.

Japan intended to use the diplomatic negotiations with Russia for the preparations to provoke the war. “Judging that the international isolation of Russia, her unpreparedness for war, the fact that the Siberian

railway had not been completed, and that it would take a long time for the Baltic Fleet to bring reinforcements to the Far East afforded a good opportunity for the provocation of the war, the Japanese aggressors craftily acted to ignite the war as soon as possible, while striving to keep their intentions hidden from the Russians.

The Japanese government gave instructions to the Japanese minister in Russia to break diplomatic negotiations with Russia on February 5, 1904, and told him to notify the Russian government of this after the outbreak of the war.

The cunning Japanese set the date for the provocation of the war at the 8th of February when the rivers of Northeast Asia would begin to thaw.

The Japanese government issued an order to the units of the army and navy on the fifth of February to start military actions.

The Japanese fleet, led by Togo, its commander, left its base on the morning of the sixth of February.

The Japanese fleet made a surprise attack on the Russian fleet lying at anchor in Port Lushun on the night of the 8th of February, Sunday, as was their tactic prior to a declaration of war. Following this, another Japanese fleet sank one Russian cruiser and one gunboat in the port of Inchon on the west coast of Korea by making a surprise attack on them at dawn on the 9th of February.

Concerning the perfidious attacks of Japan which provoked the Manchurian incident, the Sino-Japanese War and the Pacific War being violations of international laws, the Tokyo International Military Tribunal gave the following verdict: "In view of the

convention (The Hague Convention of 1907, concerning the start of hostilities—author) which was in force in those days, the attacks on Fengtian, Changchun and Jilin on September 18, 1931, on Nanjing on December 12, 1937 and on Pearl Harbour, Manila, Davao and Hong Kong on the 7th and the 8th of December, 1941 without previous notice or warning, and later attacks of the same kind—were these attacks lawful acts? We insist that they were not.” (*Tokyo Trial*, Vol. 1, p. 224.)

All of the above-mentioned attacks were launched without clear previous warnings or ultimatums. When the attack on Pearl Harbour was being launched, the Japanese representatives were negotiating with the U.S government treacherously in Washington with a view to lulling the other side into a false sense of security. These facts provide indisputably clear evidence of war crimes.

In addition, the attacks Japan launched in other areas, too, constitute acts of aggression, and were violations of laws, because they were committed without warning in violation of the conventions.

The Japanese criminals committed these crimes, fully aware that they were violations of Japan’s treaty obligations.

As people cannot lead disciplined lives unless they respect the laws of their own countries, so no nation can expect coexistence with and trust from other nations if it does not observe the conventions strictly established to govern the relations with other nations. If treaties concluded between states are not observed, the world will fall into chaos. It goes without saying that modern civilized society will by no means permit the world to

fall into chaos which would incur widespread confusion, destruction and plunder.

3) INFRINGEMENT ON THE LIVES AND PROPERTY OF NONCOMBATANTS

Wherever the Japanese troops went, they engaged in murder of the peaceful inhabitants, plunder and destruction.

The Tokyo trial cited the Nanjing massacre, which lasted for three months from December 1937, as a typical instance of the atrocities the Japanese troops committed during their aggression against China.

Robert Wilson, an American who was deputy chief of the surgery section of the Nanjing University Hospital during the Nanjing massacre, gave testimony as follows: "The Japanese troops entered Nanjing on the 13th of December. All kinds of hostilities by the Chinese troops had stopped by that night. ... One day a woman of about 40 was brought to the hospital. Her neck had been sliced, and her head was in a dangerous state. People said that she had been attacked by Japanese soldiers.

"An eight-year-old child had a bullet in the stomach. A man had a bullet wound in his right shoulder. According to him, many Chinese people were taken by the Japanese soldiers to the shore of the Yangtze River, killed and their bodies thrown into the river. He said that he pretended to be dead and escaped

under cover of darkness. His name was Liang.

“Yet another man who was brought to the hospital was a Chinese policeman with a deep bayonet wound in his back. He had been taken outside the walls of the city, together with many others. The Japanese troops machine-gunned them and then bayoneted their bodies. He was the only one to survive. His name was Wu Changde.” (*Tokyo Trial*, Vol. 1, pp. 401-402.)

According to Dr. Wilson’s testimony, one day a pastor called John Magee brought a 15-year-old girl to the hospital, saying that she had been raped by a Japanese soldier. A medical examination confirmed this.

Xu Chuanyin, who was a Doctor of Literature, vice-president of the Red Swastika Society, a member of the relief committee of the society and chairman of its Housing Committee, gave vivid testimony of the atrocities committed by the Japanese troops following the occupation of Nanjing.

He said, “Then the Japanese troops entered the city from the south. The ones who occupied the city acted very barbarously. They killed people at the very sight of them. Two days after the occupation of the city by the Japanese, I made a tour of the city, accompanied by Japanese soldiers. Chinese corpses were lying everywhere. Nasty cut wounds were seen on some of them.

“I started to count the number of corpses on one big street. After about five hundred, I gave up.

“I saw that the west, east, north and south districts of Nanjing were in a similar state. The corpses I saw were those of men and women, old and young, but all of them were civilians. None of them was in uniform.” (*Tokyo Trial*, Vol. 1. p. 404.)



The bodies of the Nanjing citizens murdered by the Japanese troops

After the occupation by the Japanese troops, in Nanjing there were 25 refugee camps, in which 200,000 to 300,000 men took refuge. The Japanese army secured the camps, as safe havens on the condition that no one carrying weapons was admitted to them. But Japanese soldiers often searched the camps on the pretext that Chinese soldiers were hiding there.

According to Xu Chuanyin's testimony, one day when the members of the Red Swastika Society were distributing food to the refugees, two Japanese soldiers entered and closed the gates. They bound the hands of batches of 10-15 Chinese and took them away. The total taken away numbered over 1,500. Japanese soldiers then machine-gunned them to death on the bank of the Yangtze River.

The behaviour of the Japanese troops toward women hardly can be imagined in the civilized world. Many witnesses testified to the fact that they showed a prodigious "liking" for women.

It is said that Japanese soldiers in three trucks came to a certain camp and dragged all the women into a corridor and raped them indiscriminately. These women were aged from 12-13 to 40-50.

An 11-member family living at No. 7, Dongxinkai

Street, near the South Gate of Nanjing City were murdered. Three women were raped, two of them were aged 14 years and one was aged 17 years. It is said that the Japanese soldiers drove sticks into their vulvas.

According to Xu Chuanyin's testimony, the Red Swastika Society, employing 200 workers, buried the bodies of over 43,000 Chinese civilians.

Concluding his testimony, Xu Chuanyin said, "As I have mentioned, the atrocities of the Japanese troops continued for three months at least, following the occupation of Nanjing. With the passage of time their atrocities decreased to some extent. Because they set up brothels for the Japanese troops, I think." (*Ibid.*, p. 407.) The atrocious massacre by the Japanese troops on the Nanjing University campus was typical of their criminal acts at that time.

The testimony of Doctor Mainer Sir Betz, professor of history at Nanjing University in those days, enables us to judge the extent of the atrocities the Japanese troops committed on the university campus.

In the autumn of 1937, a relief committee was set up, and houses and food for the refugees were prepared in Nanjing in anticipation of the invasion of the Japanese army. After the occupation, an atrocious massacre took place unexpectedly. Many Chinese civilians were shot to death. Over 12,000 Chinese noncombatants were murdered. A certain unit of the Chinese army was disarmed outside the city walls and the soldiers were all murdered on the bank of the Yangtze River. The relief committee buried their bodies. Their number exceeded 30,000. In addition, it is said that the number of dead bodies thrown into the Yangtze River was uncountable.

There were 30,000 refugees on the Nanjing University campus. Several hundred women among them were violated. Such cases amounted to over 20,000 in the first month following the occupation.

During the occupation of Nanjing, about 50,000 men of the Japanese army plundered citizens of their bedclothes, kitchen utensils and food. What is more, buildings were regularly burned, and many Chinese merchants lost their shops and goods on account of fire and plunder. The plundered shops and goods were handed over to Japanese merchants. The result was that communications, finance houses, banks, and wholesale of rice, cotton, precious metals and building materials fell into the hands of Japanese merchants and the Japanese army.

The Japanese merchants took the profits without investing capital and had the exclusive right to do business.

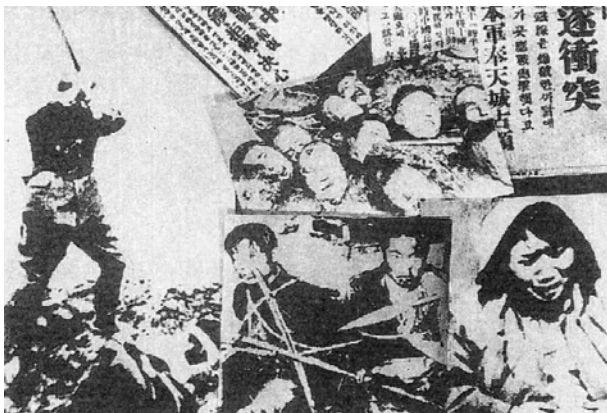
In those days in Nanjing the official price of rice was set at 18 to 22 dollars per *picul* (one *picul* is about 60.48 kg), but its price in the production area along the Yangtze River was 8-9 dollars, and the profits were retained by the monopoly organ of the Japanese army. The relief committee negotiated with the Japanese occupation authorities with a view to buying rice cheaply, but to no avail.

It was said that opium and heroin had not been sold or used openly before the occupation by the Japanese; but during the occupation peddlers openly sold them to the refugees until the autumn of 1938. Later the sale of these drugs became a business of the puppet government, and advertisements for these drugs appeared in newspapers.

Encouragement of the use of drugs in the occupied areas was as serious a war crime as that of murdering noncombatants.

During the Japanese invasion of China, the Japanese occupation army murdered over 300,000 innocent inhabitants of Nanjing alone. The Chinese people still remember it and condemn the Japanese army for the atrocious massacre in Nanjing. Yang Shangkun, one of the leaders of China, who inspected Nanjing in 1995 to mark the 50th anniversary of victory in the war, denounced the Japanese as follows: “The Nanjing massacre committed by the Japanese army which invaded China was the most barbarous atrocity in human history, and was an unprecedented disaster.” (*Xinhua* dispatch from Nanjing, dated December 13, 1995.)

The Japanese troops committed massacres of

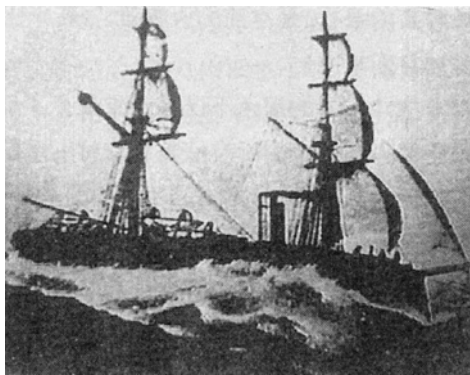


The atrocity committed by the Japanese troops in Northeast China

noncombatants in all the cities and villages they occupied, not just Nanjing. During the Second World War, the Japanese occupation army murdered over 12 million peaceful civilians in China. Japanese soldiers also murdered peaceful civilians in other Asian countries they occupied, namely, over 1,100,000 in the Philippines, over two million in Vietnam and over three million in Indonesia.

The Japanese aggressors murdered peaceful inhabitants indiscriminately right from the time they committed their first armed invasion of Korea.

When the Japanese warship *Unyo* failed in its attempt to occupy Kanghwa Island at one stroke by bombarding the battery at Chojijin on the island, which was an important military stronghold and the “gateway to Seoul”, the capital city of the Ri Dynasty, in August 1875, it then attacked Yongjongjin in the east of Yongjong Island, where they murdered six hundred inhabitants, and plundered their property



Japanese warship *Unyo*

indiscriminately, reducing streets and villages to ruins.

The atrocious “punitive operations” of the Japanese troops against the struggle of the anti-Japanese volunteers who rose in defence of the country’s sovereignty in the late years of the 19th century and at the beginning of the 20th century were crimes violating the laws of war. The encirclement and annihilation operations the Japanese army undertook to suppress the volunteers in Jolla Province provide a typical instance of this.

In the latter part of August 1908, when the volunteers’ struggle was raging in Jolla Province, Major General Watanabe, Japanese commander of the Southern Garrison District, formed a temporary “punitive force” and sent it to North and South Jolla Provinces, reinforcing it with the engineering platoon of the Sixth Division, military policemen and civilian policemen. The force was divided into the “garrison unit” and the “action unit”. The “garrison unit” laid sieges and guarded important places, while the “action unit” committed barbarous searches, arrests and murders of the people within the encirclement.

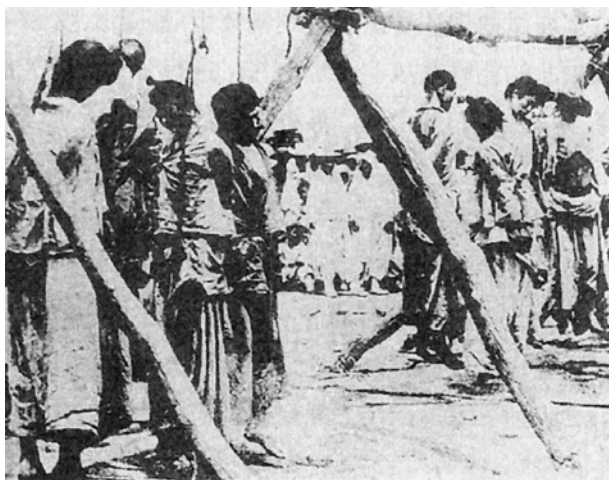
The Japanese army conducted its “punitive operations” viciously. The “punitive force” would encircle a village, place a double or treble guard on it, and search it. They arrested, imprisoned and murdered suspects brutally.

While conducting “punitive operations” in the area where the volunteers were active, the Japanese troops arrested, shot, hung or buried alive not only volunteers but also those people whom they “considered” to have participated in the volunteers’ struggle, those who were supposed to have helped the volunteers, the families of

the volunteers and other suspects indiscriminately, irrespective of sex and age, and committed all kinds of brutalities against them. They did not scruple to commit atrocities such as exposing dead bodies in the central part of a village or on busy streets on the pretext of “punishment” or “warning”.

The whole territory of Korea was reduced to an execution ground and slaughterhouse for the Korean people under the occupation of the Japanese aggressor army.

The Japanese “punitive force” demolished or burned down villages indiscriminately under the pretext of exterminating the bases of the insurgents. From August to December 1907, for instance, the Japanese army demolished or burned down over 1,000 houses in North



The Korean patriots murdered in their resistance against the Japanese invasion

Chungchong Province, over 800 houses in Kyonggi Province, and over 350 houses in Hongchon County, Kangwon Province.

The most mean and brutal war crime of the Japanese army was the large-scale massacre of the Koreans in Manchuria in 1920, which was known as the year of the large-scale “punitive operation” in Jiandao. It was an unprecedented explosion of homicidal mania to retrieve the shameful defeat they had suffered in Fengwudong and Qingshanli by killing Korean noncombatants in Manchuria.

Following the March First Popular Uprising, many armed volunteer bands which rose up for the freedom and liberation of the motherland were formed in the northern part of Korea and in Manchuria, and fought the Japanese. It was a response by Korean patriots to the brutal killing of peaceful demonstrators and other peaceful citizens by the Japanese during the period of the March First Movement.



The Japanese soldiers killing the participants in the March First Popular Uprising by cutting their neck with a fodder-chopper

As the Independence Army became more active, the Japanese threw in large numbers of “punitive forces” to stamp it out.

Japan’s first scheme to “suppress” the Independence Army envisaged laying siege to and attacking Fengwudong in Wangqing County, a major base of the Independence Army in eastern Manchuria, by calling out a regiment led by Major Yasugawa and the Namyang garrison in the summer of 1920.

Seeing through the intention of the enemy, the unit of the Independence Army led by Hong Pom Do lured part of the Japanese troops which entered Fengwudong into an ambush on June 4, 1920, in cooperation with other troops. They killed over 120 men and seized a considerable amount of war supplies.

Failing in the first “punitive operation” against the Independence Army, the Japanese units planned a larger-scale “punitive operation”. The troops of the Independence Army, which were sharply watching the enemy’s movements, decided to deal a blow at the Japanese army once again. Against the brigade under the command of Major General Azuma, reinforced with cavalry, artillery and engineering units, the Independence Army formed combined troops composed of Hong Pom Do’s unit, Choe Jin Dong’s unit and Kim Jwa Jin’s unit, which were active in northeast Manchuria.

The troops of the Independence Army encountered the enemy unexpectedly in Qingshanli, Helong County, on October 21, 1920. Discovering the Independence Army troops, the Japanese army encircled Qingshanli from three sides and attacked them tightening the encircling net. Quickly seeing through the enemy’s

attempt, the troops of the Independence Army, being familiar with the terrain, escaped from the enemy's encirclement. In the battle in Qingshanli the troops of the Independence Army achieved a shining result of routing the main force of Azuma's "punitive operation".

The troops of the Independence Army which had dealt a stunning blow at the Japanese troops manoeuvred quickly and gathered inside Soviet territory, with a view to making preparations for further combat and reorganizing their forces.

At this, the homicidal mania characteristic of the Japanese soldiers burst out. Japanese troops moving southward after an expedition to Siberia and Japanese troops which were moving northward to Manchuria, leaving Ranam, reduced the villages where Koreans lived to heaps of ashes wherever they went and massacred the local people. They burnt the bodies after spraying petroleum on them to obliterate the evidence of their crimes as they had done when they assassinated Queen Min.

This was the large-scale massacre committed by the Japanese in 1920, which is recorded as the "large-scale punitive operation of the year Kyongsin" in history. In this large-scale "punitive operation", the Japanese devilish homicides committed the unpardonable atrocity of killing over 30,000 Koreans and destroying and burning over 6,000 houses.

The atrocious "punitive operation" of the Japanese troops against the guerrilla bases in Jiandao in the early 1930s constituted a horrendous war crime.

The Japanese militarists referred to the guerrilla bases in eastern Manchuria as the "cancer of peace in

the Orient". This showed that the Japanese militarists feared the guerrilla bases. It was not because the area of the guerrilla bases was especially wide nor because the force of the communists encamped there was great enough to defeat the Kwantung Army. It was not that a bomb thrown from Jiandao could hit the imperial palace in Tokyo or the roof of the General Headquarters. They regarded Jiandao as a dangerous thorn in their flesh because the overwhelming majority of the inhabitants were Koreans imbued with strong anti-Japanese sentiments, and because most of them had a firm revolutionary spirit and were ready to fight at the risk of their lives against Japanese rule under the leadership of Kim Il Sung, the legendary general of Korea in the anti-Japanese struggle.

If it is taken into consideration that Koreans accounted for 90 percent of the members of the revolutionary organizations in the area of Jiandao, it will be easily understood why the Japanese rulers regarded the guerrilla zone in this district as the biggest headache afflicting their rule over Manchuria.

The heroic volunteers and most of the remaining forces of the Independence Army who had continued the resistance struggle against the "Ulsa Treaty" and Japan's annexation of Korea for over ten years in the homeland and in the vast expanse of Manchuria fought, armed only with matchlocks, the Japanese troops and police there. In order to remove the "cancer of peace in the Orient" the Kwantung Army and the Japanese army stationed in Korea consulted together about the way to deal with Jiandao in the spring of 1932. This was intended to suppress the revolutionary movement in the

area of Jiandao by sending a provisional expeditionary force from the troops stationed in Korea. As a result of the consultation, the provisional expeditionary force to Jiandao was formed with the Japanese army regiment belonging to the division in Ranam, as the main force, together with the Kyongwon garrison, cavalry, field artillery and one air squadron. It poured fire over the people who had risen up for the freedom and independence of their fatherland, and the independent life of man and over their houses in all the villages and streets in the four counties of eastern Manchuria.

Following the attack on Dakanzi in the early April of 1932, the mountains and fields of Wangqing were soaked in blood. Japanese troops occupied Dakanzi, and their airplanes bombed the streets of Wangqing. They began to murder the people, plunder and burn their houses. Next, Deyuanli and Shangqingli became a sea of fire.

Refugees who had lost their families and homes because of the brutal “punitive force” attacks streamed ceaselessly into the Xiaowangqing and Dawangqing valleys. The Japanese airplanes bombed the stream of civilians.

The clear river of Wangqing was dyed red with blood. One day, entrails of murdered people floated down the river.

Zhuanjiaolou, situated near Xiaowangqing and Luozigou, was also harassed by the murderers of the provisional expeditionary force in Jiandao. Raiding this place, the Japanese troops murdered tens of people, including women and children, brutally, throwing some of them into burning houses.



Battle for the defence of Xiaowangqing

The Japanese troops annihilated all the inhabitants of a village if one of them was found to be a communist. A slogan trumpeted by the Japanese troops and police was “You may kill one hundred people to eliminate one communist”. During the Japanese invasion of China Okamura Yasuji, commander of the Japanese army in North China, applied the “Kill, burn and plunder all” policy in attacking the liberated areas there. The policy had already been enforced during the “punitive operation” in Jiandao in the 1920s. In the early 1930s, it was put into practice on a large scale in reducing the guerrilla zones in eastern Manchuria to scorched earth.

The “Kill, burn and plunder all” policy advocated by the Japanese imperialists in Korea and Manchuria and the concentration-village policy aimed at the so-called “separation of the bandits from the population” were applied by the French colonialists in their military operations to suppress the resistance forces of Algeria and were further completed by the US army in Vietnam.

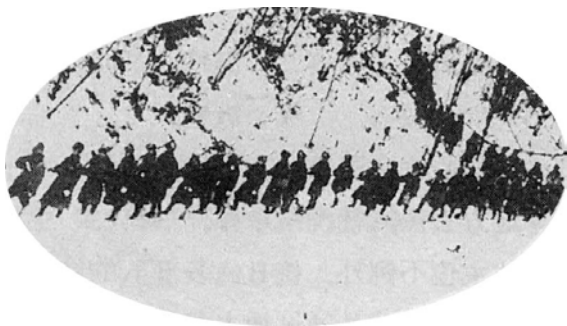
The noted revolutionary villages in Yanji County, including Shandaowan, Hailangou, Longjing and Fenglingdong, were littered with dead bodies. In the area of Sanhanli, Hunchun County over 1,600 houses were burned down. The number of the people killed in Yanji County alone, for instance, amounted to over 10,000.

The Japanese troops even destroyed kitchen utensils, the elementary means of subsistence, to say nothing of the lives and other property of the Koreans in the area of Jiandao. They smashed iron pots to prevent people cooking, took away rush-mats and removed the flat flagstones from rooms. At last they pulled down their houses and took away the building timbers to the town of Daduchuan. The people had to sleep on the grass and cook their food on heated stones instead of in iron pots.

The people, who had failed to hide in the mountains, were threatened with death if they did not move to towns such as Dakanzi or Daduchuan.

The “punitive force” did not exempt even landlords from the forced eviction. It was no secret that considerable quantities of food and daily necessities consumed by the anti-Japanese armed units were supplied by landlords and wealthy persons. By blocking this source, the Japanese tried to stifle the revolutionary army, which constantly suffered from shortages of food and clothing.

The innocent local people wandered hungrily in the mountains, trying to avoid the relentless pursuit of the “punitive force”. However, the mountains were not entirely safe; valleys, no matter how deep they are, have dead ends. When they reached the end of a valley, the fugitives would hide in the forest. If children cried as



The Japanese troops conducting “punitive operation” against the guerrilla base

the Japanese pursuers drew near, death was certain.

When the “punitive force” searched the vicinity, a woman embraced her baby tightly, giving it her breast, lest it cry out. Otherwise, it would have been impossible to secure the safety of several hundred people in the face of the muzzles of the enemy’s guns. When she looked at the baby after the “punitive force” had left, it was already dead. Such a tragedy happened in every village and in every valley in Jiandao.

Sometimes, opium was administered to babies to stupefy them. Harassed by the enemy’s repeated “punitive operations”, some women, in tears, had to give away their beloved children to others.

The women of our country paid dearly for their efforts to help the revolutionary masses and comrades-in-arms in the guerrilla zone, regarding the anti-Japanese cause as more precious than their lives.

If Japan is to settle accounts with the past, she ought to reflect on these crimes. Of course, it is not pleasant for one to look back on and repent of one’s crimes. Such

reflection may be bitter and humiliating. But isn't it less bitter than the torment the mothers and sisters of Korea suffered when they left their dear children under the hedges of strangers' houses or stuffed opium in their babies' mouths?

If the Japanese rulers demand any evidence of the crimes they committed, it will be an insult to several million Korean people murdered by the Japanese army in the past.

4) MALTREATMENT AND MURDER OF PRISONERS OF WAR

Article 4 of the agreement on the laws and customs of war on land concluded in The Hague on October 18, 1907, and the international convention on the treatment of POWs concluded in Geneva on July 27, 1929 stipulate that maltreatment and murder of POWs constitute serious war crimes.

The Tokyo trial indicted the Japanese war criminals for violations of the international laws and customs related to POWs during World War II as follows:

a) The POWs were not only directly used in military operations but were also used in work related to such operations;

b) The POWs were forced to do work physically unsuitable for them and harmful to their health;

c) Work hours were excessive every day, and the POWs were not allowed 24 hours of rest per week;

d) Working conditions were made harder by the disciplinary measure;

e) The POWs were interned without enough food or clothing suitable for the climate. This was harmful to their health, and they were employed in danger zones. (*Tokyo Trial*, Vol. 1, p. 151.)

The Tokyo trial disclosed the facts that POWs were treated cruelly in Manchuria, China proper, the Philippines, the Dutch East Indies, French Indochina, Myanmar, Guam, Wake and other areas occupied by the Japanese army. Such instances included the massacre of the POWs working on the construction site of the Myanmar-Thailand railway, and its operation; the “death march” to Bataan in the Philippines, the Sandakan-Lanai march in Borneo, at the end of which only six out of 2,000 POWs survived; the murder of Australian nurses on Banka Island off Sumatra; and the execution of B-29 pilots.

In Lang Son, French Indochina, in January 1942, 450 POWs were machine-gunned in their legs at first, and then were stabbed to death with bayonets and pick-axes. The cruelties committed against the POWs during the “death march” to Bataan in the Philippines made people shudder. On April 10, 1942, 11,000 US soldiers and 62,000 Philippine soldiers capitulated to the Japanese. They were forced to march 120 kilometres in just over one week in the scorching sun without food or water. After the march they were maltreated in the Odonner POW Camp. As a result, 1,522 U.S. soldiers and 29,000 Philippine soldiers died soon afterwards.

Such maltreatment as in Bataan march was forced on war prisoners in the Island of Mindanao, too.

On December 14, 1944, in Puerto Princesa on the Island of Palawan, also in the Philippines, 150 American POWs were put into three air-raid shelters which were 75 feet long, 4 feet high and 3 feet wide, and then were burned to death after gasoline had been poured over them.

At the Tokyo Military Tribunal for the Far East, prosecutors testified to the criminal acts of the Japanese army committed against POWs and noncombatants in Singapore and other areas as follows:

“Murder of 5,000 Chinese and cruel maltreatment of Europeans in Singapore; indiscriminate murder of the inhabitants in the occupied areas, loss of life of 16,000 POWs of the Allied forces; the deaths of over 100,000 coolies; cruel maltreatment of all the people involved in the construction of the Myanmar-Thailand railway; the notorious Bataan and Borneo death marches, massacre of the Australian nurses and inhabitants of Banka Island, the Palawan massacre, the murder of people at the Dor Farm in New Guinea, the murder of 200 POWs in Laha, the murder of Europeans and natives in Longnor, Bandjermasin, Pontianak and Tarakan, the murder on Wake Island, the murder of the survivors of sunken ships.... There is evidence that there was a scheme to kill all POWs in case the Allied army attempted to land or rescue the POWs in most of the occupied regions. In some regions the scheme was put into practice.” (*Tokyo Trial*, Vol. 1, p. 618.)

The Allied nations time and again lodged protests with the Japanese government against violations of the rules of war related to the POWs, but in vain.

The Swiss minister in Tokyo, who acted for the U.S.

and Britain, and the Swedish minister, who acted for the Netherlands, lodged protests with the Japanese foreign minister concerning war crimes against POWs of the Allied nations time and again during the war.

One of the major characteristics of Japan's attitude toward POWs is that she systematically refused most of the visits to the POW camps by International Red Cross delegates. Even in case a visit to a POW camp was allowed, only those places which were especially arranged for the visitors were shown. Visitors were not allowed to make any remark which was not authorized by the commandant.

Most of the protests against murder, hunger and maltreatment were ignored. No measure to prevent murder or maltreatment of POWs was taken, and even proper investigation was neglected.

The Japanese government was requested time and again to deliver lists of the names of POWs and details of those who had died. However, such information was only made available toward the end of 1945.

A total of 142,319 Englishmen were taken prisoner by Germany and Italy. Of them, 7,310, or 5.1 percent, were killed or died in detention. But of the 50,016 English POWs captured by Japan, 12,433, or 24.8 percent, were killed or died in detention. This fact clearly shows how grave Japan's war crimes against the POWs were in comparison even with Nazi Germany and fascist Italy.

The Hague Convention stipulates: "The prisoner of war is under the authority of the enemy government, but not that of the individual or the troop that took him prisoner."

Therefore, it was natural that the Tokyo trial indicated not only the custodians of the POWs but also the responsible government officials for war crimes against POWs.

The Japanese government submitted an official report on the treatment of POWs to the military tribunal after the third of September, 1945.

Japan set up the “Central Investigation Committee” to deal with the issue of POWs only after her defeat, and presented the report to the military tribunal.

Two reports on the murder of Chinese on the construction site of the Myanmar-Thailand railway and in Singapore were presented separately. What surprised people was that the Japanese government in one report affirmed the death sentence passed without trial on the Allied aircrew which was captured while on a bombing mission over Japan, ascribing it to the pressure of the then situation.

However, international law clearly held the Japanese authorities responsible for this crime.

Evidence against the war criminals and their subordinates responsible for the violation of the rules of war which was presented to the Tokyo trial is as follows:

Tojo, at the trial, admitted that he was responsible. He himself gave the heads of POW camps instructions which went against the rules of war. He as the Minister of War controlled the activities related to POWs of the departments and bureaus of the Ministry of War. He was responsible for the policies enforced by the Japanese government against POWs.

When Kimura, Vice-Minister of War, received instructions from Tojo and took charge of affairs of the ministry, he was responsible for drawing up the Rules for

Punishment of POWs, which went against the convention on POWs, and the “law” providing for sentencing the aircrew of the Allied nations to death. At the same time, he tried to prove the “superiority” of the Yamato nation and the “inferiority” of the Anglo-Saxon race by insulting POWs and giving inhuman treatment to POWs in full view of the public in Korea. He was directly responsible for sending POWs to munitions factories in Manchuria and working POWs hard in the occupied areas. He was later responsible for similar cruelties as the commander of the Japanese army in Myanmar.

Muto and Sato were the directors of the bureau of military affairs of the Ministry of War who took charge of the bureau of POW management and the bureau of POW information. The director of the bureau was responsible for handling grievances of POWs. Both of them were responsible for the welfare of POWs, yet they flagrantly violated international laws.

Togo, Tojo and Shigemitsu were foreign ministers successively between 1941 and 1945. Tojo was once home minister. Requests for the allotment of POWs to private enterprises were sent by prefectural governors to the Ministry of War through the Ministry of Home Affairs.

Copies of different countries’ protests related to POWs were usually delivered by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to the Ministry of the Navy and the Ministry of Home Affairs, as well as to the Ministry of War. Consequently, the responsibility rested with Shimata, who was the minister of the navy under Tojo, and later the chief of the Naval General Staff, Oka, who was successively the chief of the bureau of general affairs and the bureau of military affairs from 1940 to

August 1944, Nagano, who was the chief of the Naval General Staff from April 1941 to February 1944, and Suzuki, who was concurrently the minister of state affairs and director of the planning board.

The decision on the employment of POWs for the construction of the Myanmar-Thailand railway was made in 1942 by the General Headquarters, the members of which included Sukiama, the then chief of the General Staff, and Nagano, chief of the Naval General Staff, Shimata, minister of the navy, and Tojo, minister of war.

So most of the responsibility for its consequences rested with them.

The responsibility for the employment and maltreatment of POWs in Manchuria rested with Umetsu, who was concurrently commander of the Kwantung Army and ambassador to Manchukuo.

Likewise, Itagaki who was the commander of the No. 7 Theatre of War in Singapore from 1945 to the defeat of Japan, was responsible for violations of the rules of war in Singapore and its vicinity during that time.

The Japanese press commented on the report on the atrocities of the Japanese army presented by the international public prosecutors at the Tokyo trial as follows: "It began with the maltreatment of POWs and their murder by the military police in Myanmar and Thailand. The public prosecutor read the statement. At intervals, he summoned in turn witnesses to the maltreatment, who enumerated detestable crimes endlessly. These incidents were of such a nature that those who used to hear about the beautiful scenes of war might doubt whether these incidents really could take place. There were many facts which were new even to

those who had been war correspondents and knew a little about the outward appearance and the seamy side of the army. It may be supposed that they are possible. But some soldiers themselves probably did not know that these horrible events took place on such a large scale behind the battlefield.” (*Tokyo Trial*, Vol. 1, p. 621.)

The traces of abominable atrocities of the Japanese imperialists are still found. According to a dispatch from Bangkok dated July 17, 1995, Buntum Wandee, an Indonesian who was forced to work like a slave by the Japanese imperialists during World War II returned to his homeland, aged 74 years, after over 50 years of living in a hut in the jungle of Thailand.

He was assigned to “railway of death” in Thailand by Japanese troops in 1942, but fled with several others in 1944, and hid in the jungle.

It is estimated that of 300,000 Asian workers taken forcibly to the construction site of the “railway of death” by Japanese troops during World War II, about 150,000 lost their lives.

In addition, 16,000 POWs died due to the atrocities committed against them by the Japanese imperialists during the period of construction of the railway.

5) BACTERIOLOGICAL WARFARE ATROCITIES

International conventions strictly stipulate the prohibition of the production, storage and use of

bacteriological and biochemical weapons for mass destruction.

But during World War II, the Japanese imperialists produced bacteriological weapons and committed war crimes by experimenting with them on human bodies and actually using them.

In the 1930s, Japan drew up a plan for bacteriological warfare, and pushed ahead with it in real earnest, while extending the war on the continent. The criminal bacteriological warfare by the Japanese was laid bare at the Khabarovsk Military Tribunal for the Far East after the defeat of Japan.

In line with their germ warfare scheme, the Japanese imperialists formed a group of germ weapon researchers in Manchuria and conducted the work in secret. This was the notorious 731st Unit, known as the “Supplies Centre of the Kwantung Army for Prevention of Epidemics”, situated in Pingfang near the Chinese city of Haerbin.

Various kinds of germ experiments were conducted on people there day and night. Plague, cholera and smallpox germs were introduced into the human body, and their effects were studied by dissecting the bodies. This was most heinous murder.

The people chosen as objects of the experiments all suffered gruesome deaths. The “researchers”, in a mask and white gown, cut the human bodies up at any time they pleased. People who had been perfectly healthy were cut up by the barbarous butchers into chunks, which were immersed in preservative liquid.

It became known that at the 731st Unit there was a “specimen room” where the chunks of human bodies in glass vessels were on display.

The book *Devil's Gluttony*, written by Japanese writer Morimura Sheiichi shows well how cruelly in those days the murderers of the 731st Unit butchered people.

Those cold-hearted devilish murderers would tie a living man to a surgical table and quarter his body without anesthetizing him.

In the 731st Unit the human bodies used for experiments were called “logs”, because the members of the unit thought that they could cut and saw them like logs at any time. By this atrocious method, numberless people suffered gruesome deaths there every day.

According to the data, the number of people killed as the objects of experiments at the 731st Unit amounted to 4,000. In 1945, the year of Japan's defeat, for instance, over 1,000 people lost their lives there.

The persons used for the experiments were mainly those who had been arrested or taken prisoner while engaged in the anti-Japanese movement. Most of them were Koreans or Chinese. In those days the Japanese imperialists arrested, imprisoned and murdered indiscriminately those whom they suspected of anti-Japanese sentiments, saying, “those who resist the ‘Great Japanese Empire’ shall be rooted out”.

Most of them were used as objects for the testing of germ weapons.

Quite a few Koreans who had been commandeered for compulsory labour or military service were killed, while being used as objects of experiments at the 731st Unit.

Many “logs” were taken there on trucks every day. Major General Kawashima of the old Japanese army, who was put on trial as an international war criminal

after the defeat of Japan, testified about such experiments: “We never felt a shortage of people to be used in the experiments on human bodies. This was because the ‘special supply’ system delivered over 600 persons unfailingly every year.”

The Japanese killed numerous people collectively by using the germ weapons they developed during the aggressive war on the continent.

The Japanese barbarians bred mice and fleas needed for the production of germ weapons on a large scale. In Ibaraki and Tochiki Prefectures in Japan, 750,000 mice were bred for this purpose.

The production and use of germ weapons by Japan were directly planned and carried out by the holders of supreme authority of the then Japanese government and the military.

After the defeat of Japan, the devilish murderers of the 731st Unit saved their dirty lives in exchange for surrendering the data on the germ warfare research to the United States. Therefore, the data on the research into germ weapons have still not fully been revealed, and are buried in obscurity.

Even now, 50 years after the war, the criminal data on Japan’s germ weapons are only coming to light bit by bit.

The Jordanian newspaper *Al-Dustur*, dated May 14, 1993, carried an article titled “Secret of Korean Skeletons in Tokyo”, “Use of People for Germ Warfare by the Japanese” and “International Investigation” with photos disclosing the crimes of the Japanese imperialists.

The newspaper mentioned that the remains of many dead people were found at a construction site in Tokyo

in July 1989. They were not investigated in detail at that time, but a recent investigation revealed to the world that they were related to the horrible crimes committed during World War II.

The newspaper wrote that the discovery of the remains on the campus of the former Japanese Army Medical University, which was involved in the germ warfare research, reminds people of the 731st Unit, which was the unit doing research into germ weapons, and that in those days the unit brought Koreans in by plane secretly to test germ weapons on them.

Al-Dustur disclosed with illustrations that the Japanese imperialists used Koreans in the germ tests.

The newspaper wrote:

“Discovery of the remains of the dead, which the Japanese authorities attempted to hide, proved that many Koreans were used for germ tests on the human body.”

Later, more details of Japan’s germ warfare atrocities came to light.

The Japanese newspaper *Asahi Shimbun*, dated November 20, 1995, reported on the atrocious research into germ warfare conducted by the 1644th Unit, a sister germ warfare unit of the 731st Unit of the former Japanese army.

The paper based its account on a document and tape-recorded testimony which a certain Ishida of Nagoya city left two years before his death. Ishida had belonged to the 1644th Unit and had been involved in its atrocious research into germ warfare.

According to the document, when the 1644th Unit of the former Japanese army was stationed in Nanjing, Ishida, an commercial artist, recorded, with illustrations,

the results of the experiments on human bodies conducted by the unit for three years from August 1942.

According to the document, the unit injected plague and cholera germs and venom extracted from centipedes and snakes into the bodies of Chinese POWs, and conducted experiments to study their effect on the human body. Ishida described with pictures the reaction to the venom of the viscera which were taken from the bodies.

Ishida wrote that in most cases batches of five to eight POWs were brought by military policemen in trucks covered with white sheets to elude observation and were detained in a cage called a “skeleton”.

The newspaper wrote that Ishida spent 40 hours burning secret documents on the orders of his superiors after the defeat of Japan.

Quoting his document, the newspaper disclosed that the 1644th Unit killed the remaining POWs by administering doses of potassium cyanide to them. They then burned the bodies to obliterate the evidence.

The offspring of the barbarians who killed Queen Min and burned her body when they raided the royal palace of our country naturally had no scruples about stooping to any atrocity.

3. CRIMES AGAINST HUMANITY

A crime against humanity is one of the gravest war crimes, as well as a crime against peace and a violation of war regulations.

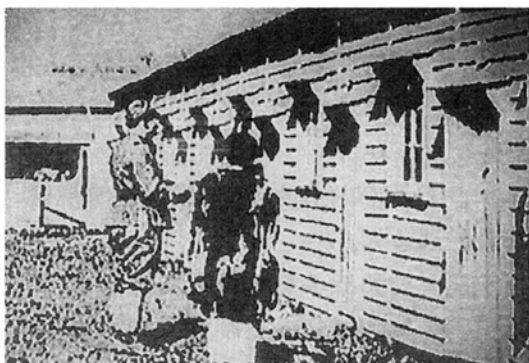
There are three major crimes against humanity—making women “comfort women” for soldiers in all the areas occupied by Japanese troops, coercive conscription of young people for slave labour, and cannibalism. Here the barbarisms committed by the Japanese occupation troops in Korea is mainly examined.

1) “COMFORT WOMEN” FOR ARMY—SEX SLAVES OF THE IMPERIAL ARMY

Throughout human history, aggressive wars have been waged by the ruling classes ceaselessly, but only the Japanese have ever forced women to be sex slaves for their soldiers.

Numerous women were forcibly taken away under the name of the “volunteers’ corps”.

According to some sources, the Japanese first felt the necessity for establishing the system of “comfort women” for their army to avoid the spread of venereal



慰安所規定
 一 本慰安所は陸軍及軍医の軍
 大陳二外入場許す
 入場者慰安所外劣評所許す
 入場者心受付
 互取之引替入場券
 及ガク二個受取
 入場券料金五円
 下士官兵軍属金貳圓
 入場券効力當限
 一 現金引替
 二 二回歸渡
 入場券買取者指定
 入場券入場但時間
 入場同時入場券の歸還
 一 室内於飲酒禁

A brothel for the Japanese army and the
 “regulation on the brothel”

diseases in the course of their protracted wars of aggression, when they dispatched troops to Siberia in 1918.

Some historical research data claim that in the 1920s the Japanese warlords set up brothels in the barracks of the Imperial Army and in the 1930s made it institutional to use “comfort women” as “military supplies”.

A Japanese testified that Okamura Yasuzi, who was the then deputy chief of staff, employed “comfort women” in every detachment because there occurred frequent rapes by Japanese soldiers around the time of the “Shanghai incident” in 1932. (Inaba Masao, *Material on General Okamura Yasuzi*.)

When Japan unleashed its full-scale invasion of China, its soldiers raped or gang-raped women in their occupation areas at discretion and killed them brutally.

In the early years as the need of “comfort girls” was not met the bosses of the Japanese army allowed such sexual outrages without limitation under the name of “encouraging the morale of soldiers”.

Raving that only a soldier who can rape can be a “strong soldier”, they instigated their men to commit outrages and made every possible effort to cover up the facts.

This lowered the morale of the troops, spread sexual diseases and resulted in rising anti-Japanese sentiments among the people in the occupation areas.

The commanders of the Japanese army then gave instruction to the units to set up brothels for the army, and manage them directly.

After the outbreak of the war against China in 1937, brothels for the army were hastily set up in all places

where Japanese troops were stationed, and run until Japan's defeat in the Pacific War.

The Japanese government and military authorities made it their policy to recruit Korean women as "comfort women" for the army. Kara Zenshiro, who was once in charge of logistics for the Kwantung Army, testified as follows: "When a new unit was formed and ordered to mobilize, the needed 'comfort girls' were simultaneously conscripted from the Korean peninsula." (Senda Gako, *Comfort Girls for the Army*, Japanese ed., p. 120.)

Why did the Japanese use the Korean girls as "comfort girls" for the army? Because if they requisitioned women who were in a condition of slavery in their colony of Korea, they could take a great many women away for nothing, prevent venereal diseases and keep it a military secret. Another reason was that it was in line with their policy of obliterating the Korean nation.

A Japanese woman named Suzuki Yuko said, "The Japanese authorities calculated that if a woman served as a 'comfort woman' her fecundity would be reduced. On the basis of this calculation, they started requisitioning girls from their colonies. At the same time, they calculated that the spread of sexual diseases could be prevented and it would also be favourable for depriving the colonial people of their national character. Here lay the national discrimination and real nature of colonial domination." (Japanese Journal *Sekai*, Issue of September 1992.)

The "comfort women" institution was an inhuman one, and its vileness and barbarity were unprecedented anywhere and at any time.

The Japanese government set up, controlled and ran this horrendous institution.

In May 1944, the Nakayama-led garrison stationed in the Guandong area of China, posted the rules for the use of the local soldiers clubs (club No. 1 was canteen and No. 2 brothel) to the units under it, which stipulated as follows: “The adjutant of the commander of a given unit shall supervise the affairs of the clubs; an army doctor shall take charge of their sanitary conditions; an officer in charge of logistics shall be in charge of supply service work for the clubs.” Also, the hours of use of the clubs and its charges were written down. (Nakayama Garrison, *File of Regulations*, 1944.)

This proves clearly that the organizer and the manager of the “comfort-women” system were none other than the Japanese government and the military authorities.

Another aspect of the inhuman crimes committed by the Japanese was the requisition of hundreds of thousands of Korean women to be sex slaves for their soldiers, luring them with claims that they would provide jobs for them. Because of the rapid increase in the need for “comfort women”, with the authority of the Japanese government, agents hunted girls of the age of about 20, mothers of children and even 12-or 13-year-old schoolgirls.

The facts of coercive conscription of Korean women were revealed by Japanese who had once been in charge of the business of the conscription of “comfort girls”, as well as by Korean victims.

A former logistics officer of the Kwantung Army said that, with a view to recruiting 20,000 Korean

“comfort women”, he went to the Government-General of Korea and conscripted them with its help. (Senda Gako, *Comfort Girls for the Army*, Japanese ed., p. 120.)

Yoshida Sheiji, who had been one of the people in charge of requisitioning “comfort girls”, told a journalist how the Japanese government had commandeered Korean women for the “volunteers corps”.

Also, he confessed that the job of enlisting girls was entrusted to the Labour Service Association of Japan, and that he, who was then chief of the Yamaguchi branch, requisitioned Korean girls as “comfort women” for the army, adding that the girls he himself commandeered into the army numbered over 1,000.

He went on to say that the Western Army Command of the land forces which was located in Fukuoka issued a top-secret order to the branch association of every prefecture, in which it was ordered that healthy Korean women should be requisitioned for the army and checks should be made for venereal disease in particular. And he told how the coercive requisitioning of girls was carried out:

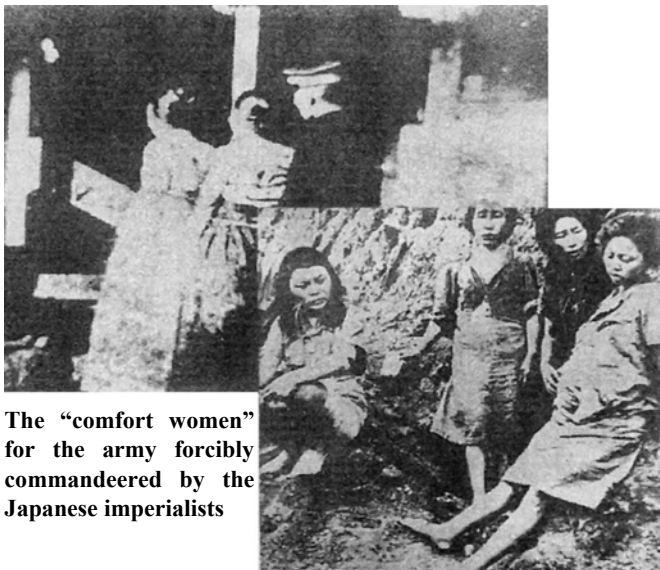
“On arrival at a village, we took all the young women out of it and gathered them on the road. If a girl ran away, we beat her with the wooden sword. We then loaded them all on a truck. We beat screeching young women down to the ground, and if their infants followed them crying, we picked them up and flung them away. The whole village would be turned to a shambles. Then we thrust the women into freight trains like packages and sent them to the Western Army Command.”

These testimonies show that the Japanese government and the military deliberately planned coercive conscription of “comfort women” for the

Japanese army, and that the majority of the victims were Korean women.

In this way, 200,000 Korean women were requisitioned to be used as “comfort women”. This is the unanimous view of the scholars who have investigated the issue, and it is also a well-attested fact that over 90 per cent of them were Korean women.

When the 44th meeting of the UN Subcommittee for the Prevention of Racial Discrimination and the Protection of Minorities, held on August 7, 1992, discussed “Modern-Type Slaves”, the delegate of the International Association for the Development of Education said, “The issue of ‘comfort women’ concerns the 200,000 Korean girls and young women who were abducted or requisitioned by the Japanese army and forced into lives of sexual slavery during World War II.”



**The “comfort women”
for the army forcibly
commandeered by the
Japanese imperialists**

Arahune, the former power broker of the Liberal Democratic Party and deputy chairman of the House of Representatives of Japan, told voters: "... 143,000 Korean comfort women were killed by Japanese soldiers." (Japanese magazine *Kendai Nome*, April 1972.)

The Japanese military authorities forced lives of unbearable slavery on the "comfort women", which is another aspect of their crimes.

In the name of the emperor, the Japanese military authorities demanded that "comfort women" should obey Japanese soldiers unconditionally.

A former "comfort woman" testified: "At first an officer of the Japanese army shouted at us: 'You must obey the orders of the army from now on. Keep in mind that you must do your duty for His Majesty the Emperor of Japan. Anyone who disobeys will be beheaded.'"

In order to make the "comfort women" meekly obey them the Japanese soldiers mercilessly murdered those who resisted them.

A woman who had been forced to serve as a "comfort woman" in Shanghai, Singapore and other places, testified as follows: "An epidemic disease spread in the Japanese military brothels in the Shanghai region. The Japs set fire to them, so that the sick women were burnt to death. Vicious soldiers who were defeated in the Singapore battle shot 'comfort women' at random to give vent to their anger, thrust them into a hole and hurled hand-grenades at them".

Another testified, "There were 30 women in the 'comfort station' where I was, and only five survived. So, who knows how many Korean women were killed?"

The following is more testimony by former “comfort girls”:

Ri Kyong Saeng (76 in 1992) testified, “The Japanese confined each girl in a cell of about two square metres. My room was No. 8.

“I had to ‘serve’ 20 Japanese soldiers on a daily average, and more on Sundays. The Japanese beat, even stabbed, ‘comfort girls’ if the latter cried with pain.

“Kim Ki Bok, 18 years old, from Kyongsang Province, began to resist when she could no longer tolerate her nonstop ‘service’. At this, the Japanese kept her hanging from an electricity pole for a whole night. The following morning, they ordered all of us to assemble in front of the pole. They decapitated her and dismembered her, threatening that the same fate would await us if we disobeyed them. They then threw her remains into a nearby river... .”

Kim Il Nae became a “comfort girl” for the 12th Division of Tokyo in 1934, when she was 18 years old. After that, she was taken to Changchun, Haerbin, Shanghai, Nanjing, Guizhou and Guandong in China, and even to Singapore to “serve” its soldiers. She was one of those who had a narrow escape from death. She testified: “A girl called Hanako from Pyongyang got pregnant. One day a Japanese called Tanaka, beastly drunk, entered her cell. He knocked her down, kicked her in the belly mercilessly, then cut her belly open, took out the fetus and cut it into pieces.”

She went on to say, “About 20 days before the August 15 liberation from Japan, the Japanese troops lined up over 150 ‘comfort girls’ and beheaded them one by one.” (*Intermediate Report on the Fact-Finding*

of Criminal Acts of the Japanese Imperialists Who Introduced the System of "Comfort Girls for the Japanese Army", by the Democratic People's Republic of Korea Committee to Investigate the Damage Done by the Japanese Imperialists' Occupation of Korea, August 1993, Pyongyang.)

The crimes committed by the Japanese soldiers against Korean women were the most barbarous and inhuman of all times and in all places.

The outrages committed by the Japanese government and military authorities against "comfort women" were crimes against humanity.

In view of international law, both the International Tribunal for Nuremberg and the International Tribunal for the Far East stipulated that the murder, massacre, enslavement or forced displacement of civilians before or during a war are crimes against humanity.

The military court held at The Hague in the Netherlands in 1948 sentenced 12 Japanese army officers to death or other punishment because the Japanese troops who occupied Indonesia during the Pacific War took away Dutch women to be "comfort women" for the Japanese army.

The criminal acts of the Japanese military authorities were heinous crimes against human rights which infringed the basic provisions of the Agreement on the Prohibition of Forced Labour (Japan, too, signed this agreement), an international human rights agreement which was concluded in 1930.

Internationally, in accordance with the agreement on not applying the statute of limitations to a war crime and a crime against mankind, the statute was not

to be applied to a crime against humanity.

In recent years, the meetings of a working-level group concerned with the problem of modern slavery, under the UN Subcommittee, denounced the crimes of the Japanese government in connection with the problem of the “comfort women”, and discussed legal grounds for compensation.

According to international law, the crimes against humanity committed by the Japanese imperialists in the cases of the “comfort women” must be strongly condemned and due sanctions must be applied to the criminals, irrespective of the statute of limitation.

2) FORCED CONSCRIPTION OF OVER 8.4 MILLION KOREANS

The Japanese imperialists requisitioned six million Koreans for slave labour, and in the process massacred numerous people. This nefarious atrocity was just as much a grave war crime against humanity, as the matter of “comfort women”.

In the middle ages slavers barbarously hunted natives in Africa and sold them as slaves.

If such inhuman brutalities as negro-slave hunting perpetrated in Africa appeared in the 20th century, which is called “the era of civilization”, people would be shocked.

However, this was the stark reality that the Japanese requisitioned Koreans forcibly.

The coercive requisition of Koreans was a result of Japan's overseas aggression policy and its vicious policy of exterminating the people of its colony.

In the 1930s, Japan ignited a war to invade the continent and extended it by a series of escalations. So they were continually short of labour power.

According to the data announced by the Japanese authorities at that time, the work force needed in 1939 amounted to 1,100,000 men, and in 1941 to 2,500,000 men. Just before Japan's defeat, 7,900,000 men were needed.

Japan needed a huge work force to supplement military losses on the battlefields, and to support rapidly-increasing munitions production. They planned to procure it in their colony of Korea without difficulty, under the name of "delivery of manpower".

As their policy of "delivery of manpower" was strongly opposed by the Korean people, the Japanese imperialists announced a number of evil laws to justify the requisition of Koreans.

They issued and enforced the "Law on National Mobilization" in April 1938, the "Personal Service Drafting Law" in July 1939 and the "Labour Control Law" in February 1941. And in February 1942, they adopted a cabinet decision called the "Policy on the Use of Labourers of the Korean Peninsula".

In order to put these laws into effect, the Government-General of Korea worked out a "summary of arrangements" to take Koreans to Japan for labour services.

It is beyond argument that these laws were violations of the "Agreement on Prohibition of Forced

Labour”, Article 29 of the Agreement of the International Labour Organization which Japan signed in November 1932.

The Japanese described these “laws” as measures for collection and dispatch of work forces, which was necessary in wartime. But they were illegal, evil laws enabling the Japanese to use Koreans as slaves or military servants. The Japanese colonialists, too, do not deny this fact. Mizuda Naohiro, who was then the director of the Financial Bureau of the Government-General of Korea, said: “The worst thing was stealing human beings. Japan needed coal miners. She mined tens of million tons of coal, 60 percent of which was done by Koreans who had been conscripted. Projects such as the building of harbours and naval ports in Polynesia were also built by Korean forced labor. News of the whereabouts of the forced laborers, or even about whether they were alive or dead was not sent to their families to keep the projects secret. They were the victims of war.” (*Materials Concerning the Modern History of Korea, Selected Major Documents Concerning the Government-General of Korea*, Vol. 3, p. 25.)

On the basis of the “summary of arrangements” which was concocted to ensure the “delivery of manpower” in accordance with the “Plan for Wartime Manpower Mobilization”, the Government-General of Korea set up the headquarters of the “Korean Labour Association” in the Government-General of Korea, with a branch in each province and a sub-branch in each city, county and island, and built up a network like a cobweb to trap young Korean men into forced labour.

What the Japanese called “enlistment” was a

coercive requisitioning of people by the colonial government, little better than slave hunting or abduction. What they called “recommendation to Japan” was another form of slave hunting through the intervention of military force.

With a view to meeting the increasing need for labour, the Japanese imperialists resorted to the “Personal Service Drafting Law” in the last year of the Pacific War.

The Japanese authorities’ excuse was: “The peaceful way of ‘recommendation’ was not appropriate for ensuring the sharply-increasing work force.” (*Outline Account of Koreans in Japan*, Public Security Bureau Materials.)

The “compulsory labour draft” carried out by the Japanese in Korea was “coercive requisition” of Koreans, and not “enlistment” or “recommendation to Japan”, which was simply abduction.

Pak Sang Jin, who was abducted to Yahataku Kitakyushyu, Fukuoka Prefecture, testified, “I was told that someone had been seized while he was sleeping at home and taken away to Japan, so in the evenings I would go into mountains and sleep rough. I did this for a year, but one day when I returned home from the mountains, three men—a sub-county clerk, a policeman and a clerk of the labour section of the Siga Coal Mine—were waiting for me. Taking me to the sub-county office, they said, ‘You must go to Japan because you have been registered on the labour draft list. If you work hard for three years, you can come back home without fail.’ There was nothing I could do about it, and I was taken away to Pusan, to join about 200 others.

This happened in 1943.” (*Monthly Materials on Korea*, Issue of September 1974.) This account gives a glimpse of the method of slave-hunting the Japanese used.

The coercive requisitioning of Koreans was a crime committed by the Japanese state power.

According to the data of the Japanese local government, the Korean young people who were taken away to Japan, Manchuria and other overseas areas occupied by the Japanese numbered over 8.4 million, which means that almost all the youthful labour force of the nation was requisitioned. This was an inhuman crime unprecedented in human history. This unpardonable crime was connected with the deliberate policy of the Japanese imperialists to wipe out the Korean nation. This is evocative of the policy of Nazi Germany to obliterate the Jews during World War II.

The forced labor imposed on Koreans by the Japanese surpassed the severity of the slave labour of ancient society.



The drafted workers were put to forced labour

Japanese employers maltreated and worked the forced laborers as hard as they wanted, even having the right to kill Korean workers.

A Japanese, former clerk of the labour section of the Mitsubishi Hazama Coal Mine in Nagasaki, said about this: "... An official in charge of labour management had the right of life or death over the conscripted workers.

"The labour section of a coal mine usually employed a lot of former right-wing gangsters, former military men and former police investigators. Labour management was dependent on such a traditional mechanism of violence, and at the same time aimed at carrying out state policies, turning the Koreans into the subjects of the Japanese Empire and rooting out people harbouring independent thoughts.

"For these purposes, even murder, not to mention physical torture, was legally allowed." (*Monthly Special Archives Bulletin*, Issue of April 1943, p. 95.)

The Japanese detained the Koreans who were requisitioned in concentration camps. The camps were called various names, such as "storehouse", "dormitory", "lodging house for workers", etc., but they were all really death camps. Once a person was put in such a camp, he could not come out of it. Sometimes Korean workers ran away, unable to stand the harsh slave labour. If they were caught, they were subjected to unimaginably horrifying tortures.

The report submitted by the Fact-Finding Group Concerning the Requisitioning of Koreans in Kochi Prefecture exposed the tortures used by the Japanese police on three Koreans who were caught trying to escape from the construction site of the Nagazawa Dam as follows:

“A policeman took the three deserters away to the police station, bound their waist with iron wire in front of a red-hot stove, removed their trousers, tied their genitals with string and pulled them toward the stove. The men screamed with pain. The policeman then locked the three men in a cell. The next day he said, ‘Last night you had it hot, but today you’ll have it cool.’ He left a tap on, so that the cell was soon submerged in cold water”. (*Collection of Materials on the National Exchange Meeting of the Fact-Finding Group Concerning the Requisitioning of Koreans*, Vol. 1. p. 9.)

The work done by Koreans was nonpaid labour—another example of the viciousness of the Japanese, who promised to pay salaries to the commandeered Koreans, but actually did not pay even a penny.

Yu Pok Dong, who now lives in Wai-dong, Sinuiju City, was taken away to an island in the South Seas for hard labour in a working corps belonging to the Japanese navy from July 1941 to February 1946, and had a narrow escape from death. He testified as follows:

“The Japanese said they paid 120 *yen* every month, of which 50 *yen* was saved in the Yokosuka Post Office—of course they did not give me a bank book—and 50 *yen* was sent to my home—the remittance certificate was not given to me. They added that 10 *yen* was paid in taxes and the remaining 10 *yen* was given to me. However, even that 10 *yen* went to pay for board and lodging. The result was that I was in debt. I found out later that the story about savings and remittances was a lie. On our way home, we went to the Yokosuka Post Office to draw our savings, but not a penny had been deposited there. On my arrival back home, I found

out that the Japanese claim to have remitted 50 *yen* every month had also been a lie. For five years the Japanese had not sent money to my home even once.” (*Rodong Sinmun*, October 20, 1991.)

This story gives an insight into the craftiness of the Japanese.

The requisitioned Koreans were the victims of the Japanese policy of national discrimination.

The Japanese authorities dispatched the Koreans to the heavy, harmful and dangerous work areas, in which Japanese workers were unwilling to work.

The following is an example of the policy of national discrimination practised by the Japanese against Koreans:

According to the “Instruction Delivery Document” of Kochi Prefecture, the supply cards of Turkish and Spanish prisoners of war show that they were given monthly special rations of 900 grams of sugar, 750 grams of edible oil, 1.125 kilograms of beef and 1.875 kilograms of flour. But only Koreans were not supplied with special rations.” (*Collection of Materials on the National Exchange Meeting of the Fact-Finding-Group Concerning the Requisitioning of Koreans*, Vol. 1, p. 8.)

The Japanese treated the Koreans like wartime consumer goods, not as a work force.

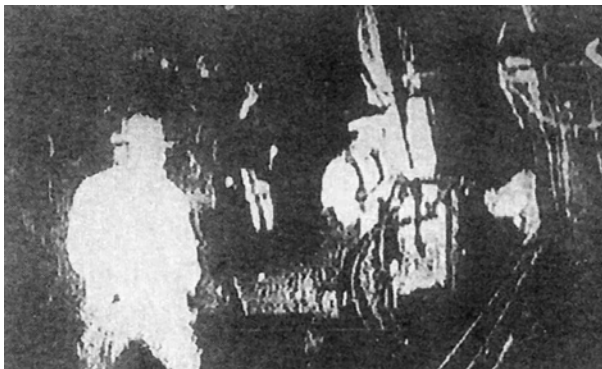
The Japanese worked the Koreans hard, with little rest and without feeding or clothing them properly. If they became disabled and lost their value as labourers, they unhesitatingly buried them alive or burned them to ashes.

The slave labour forced by the Japanese upon the Koreans was a process of ceaseless consumption of their strength, and was tantamount to group murder. The

Korean workers died of inhuman maltreatment, brutal punishment, labour accidents and other reasons.

According to medical certificate of death or “Written Application for Permission for Cremation”, which were found in a coal mine on Hashima Island, known as a living hell, near Nagasaki Port, the causes of death of many people were cerebral concussion or rupture of the intestines. This indicates that most of the deceased had been beaten to death by the Japanese or killed in industrial accidents.

When a conflagration broke out in a pit of a coal mine in Japan on January 25, 1936, the mine authorities sealed the pit under the pretext of quenching the fire. As a result, 25 Koreans were burned or suffocated to death. According to the data made available so far, over 60,000 Koreans were killed in Japanese collieries alone during 1940-1944. (*Requisitioning and Sites of Humiliation and Maltreatment*, 1990 edition, published by the Korean Issue Institute, p. 2.)



Korean workers were taken to Japan and worked at a coal mine

Meanwhile, Koreans who had been commandeered to serve as labourers in theatres of war were slaughtered in large numbers.

The Government-General of Korea testified to this fact as follows: “In response to a request from the navy, since 1941, we sent 32,248 Koreans to islands in the South Seas in the name of the Patriotic Service Corps to carry out urgent civil engineering works. This was the biggest work force mobilization. To meet the demand from the ground forces, we dispatched 7,061 Koreans as supply service workers, 3,223 men to guard POWs and 1,320 men as transport workers to the North Army. We also sent a large number of Koreans to Japan, Manchuria and South Sea Islands. Those who died on the battlefields numbered 2,142 as far as is known. On Tarawa Island and Makim Island alone, 1,200 Korean workers were killed and 735 went missing. (*The Political Situation of Korea at the End of the Pacific War*, 1961 edition, pp. 155-156.)

It is likely that the above figures, produced by the Japanese authorities, are underestimates.

The Japanese massacred the Korean workers under the pretext of ensuring military secrecy after they finished the projects.

According to Japanese local government records, the Japanese massacred 5,000 Korean workers on the Kuril Islands, 2,500 on Urup Island and 500 at the construction site of the air-raid shelter of the General Headquarters in Matsushiro under the pretext of keeping the projects secret. These facts are no more than typical instances.

The slave labour imposed upon Koreans by the

Japanese was extremely brutal and harsh. In fact, it was unprecedented in history. The number of Koreans who died in this way cannot even be estimated.

Requisitioning and slave labour are illegal and inhuman criminal acts, because first they are gross violations of the international law. Item C of Article 5 of the regulations of the International Military Tribunal for the Far East and Article 6 of the regulations of the International Military Tribunal for Nuremberg stipulate that the killing, annihilating, enslaving or kidnapping of civilians and other inhuman acts committed before and during the war are regarded as war crimes, irrespective of whether or not they violated the law of the country where they were committed.

Secondly, Japan violated the “Agreement on Prohibition of Forced Labour”. In November 1932, Japan signed the “Agreement on Prohibition of Forced Labour”, an agreement of the International Labour Organization, but blatantly infringed it even before the ink was dry. The agreement recognised that war might make compulsory labour necessary, but not forced labour.

The agreement stipulated that men and women under 18 years of age or over 46 years of age must not be commandeered for wartime compulsory labour. However, the wartime mobilization law of Japan laid down that men of 12 to 60 and women of 12 to 40 could be requisitioned.

According to Article 12 of the agreement, during any 12-month period no more than 60 days compulsory labour, including hours needed for going to and coming from a work place, should be required. The Japanese



The Korean boys were forced to work



The Japanese imperialists conscripted teenage children as “boy soldiers”

imperialists, however, made the minimum period of labour two years at a stretch, and even that period could be prolonged without limitation, in accordance with the demand of a manager.

Article 21 stipulated that the persons commandeered for wartime compulsory work should not be forced to work in underground mines, but the Japanese dispatched 125,000 Koreans to coal mines and other types of mines in Kyushu, Hokkaido and other areas of Japan until the end of June 1945. This was a colossal number, amounting to 31 percent of all miners in Japan.

The Japanese authorities sent even Korean women down mines.

All these facts are evidence that the harm done to Korean people was not simply of political and moral character but also one involving legal responsibility.

3) CANNIBALISM

Cannibalism means killing people and eating their flesh. Such a word appears in fantastic novels describing devilish brutality, but it is seldom used in human society.

Notwithstanding, this word was legally used among the Japanese troops in the years of World War II.

In 1990, an article carried in the south Korean magazine *Sindong-A* claimed that at the end of World War II (1944-early 1945) Japanese soldiers ate human flesh.

According to the article, the victims of “cannibalization” were the natives of New Guinea, prisoners of war, Asians who were mobilized for construction work and Koreans who were commandeered into the Japanese army.

Here are some testimonies:

Testimony of Wimrap (A New Guinean, May 1945):

“Japanese soldiers attacked our village. Alerted by one of our sentries, the villagers escaped into the woods. The main force of the Japanese army stayed near the village, and three soldiers entered the village. Two soldiers took potatoes and food from huts, and one walked to the end of the village. I saw the three Japanese soldiers retreating, driven away by the natives.

“Wamdem, Pona and I ran to the village to help the villagers. The Japanese soldiers fired a machine-gun at us. Wamdem and another man were killed and Pona ran into the forest, and later was also killed.

“The Japanese unit stayed in the village for three days. Only when they left it did our people return.

“I found Wamdem’s corpse, flesh removed from his breast and thigh, and both arms and shoulders had been cut away. The top part of his head had also been sliced off, and the brains were missing.

“I saw the arm bones of a man around the ashes of a fire in the cookhouse used by the Japanese troops. Bones with small pieces of flesh still attached to them were in the ashes.”

Testimony of Scott (Private first class of an Australian infantry battalion, February 27, 1945):

“On February 12, 1945 Private First Class Gross and I, in action in a certain region, checked the corpse of an

Australian soldier. Around the corpse were scattered a sword and cartridges. The corpse had been horribly chopped to pieces.

“The flesh of all parts from the breast to the ankles had been stripped off, but the hands and feet were untouched. A large piece of flesh had been removed from the right ribs. One arm was separated from the body.”

Testimony of Carson (Lieutenant of the Australian army):

“Three soldiers of the Australian army were killed in battle. Our team was given an order to retrieve their corpses. We found three cartridge belts, two pairs of combat boots and two military uniforms which seemed to be the belongings of the dead men. We continued to search, and found a scalp which we guessed to be that of one of the missing soldiers. Entrails and some pieces of burnt flesh were scattered around it. From all these horrible sights, we could guess what had happened there.

“In addition, scorched human leg bones were found around a log cabin 300 yards away. Inside the cabin were man’s thigh bones which had apparently been cooked there. In another log cabin, a little apart from this cabin a thigh bone and shoulder blades with some pieces of flesh still adhering to them were found. In another hut, we saw the head of one of our companions, the scalp flayed. Also there were pieces of backbone and scorched wrists and hands.”

Testimony of Haitam Ali (A Pakistani soldier):

“On February 15, 1942 I was taken prisoner in Singapore. We suffered all kinds of grinding toil for 12 hours a day, and were given little food.

“Every day, one prisoner used to be summoned and

murdered. I saw with my eyes the Japanese eating their flesh. The Japanese butchered about 100 prisoners here to eat. The rest of us were moved to another area. There, too, prisoners were slaughtered for food. They were taken to a hut and their flesh was cut off before they were thrown into a pit to die. When their flesh was cut off they shrieked with pain. As they were dying, their sad cries became gradually fainter. “

Testimony of Pak Jong Won (68 years of age, Sungin-dong, Jongno District, Seoul City):

“On February 23, 1945, the Japanese threw a lump of meat to me, saying that it was, ‘whale meat’.

“Then two of my Korean companions were no longer seen. I asked a man near me about their whereabouts. He said he saw them taken to an islet. Immediately I went there and found two dead men. The flesh of their thighs had been cut away, and their leg bones were exposed.”

Testimony of Ri In Sin (71 years of age, Suyu-2-dong, Tobong District, Seoul City)

“At that time I heard a friend of mine say that when he heard that the Japanese army were selling canned beef, he bought some and ate it. Later it became known that the cans contained human flesh. Some days later a rumour circulated that a Korean employee of the Japanese army had heard that the army was selling tobacco. So he went to an air-raid shelter to buy it, but he was cannibalized there.”

A newspaper published by overseas Koreans, *New Korea Times* carried the detailed testimony of Pak Jong Won:

“On December 2, 1991, he testified that in February

1944 the Japanese army commandeered Koreans for the construction of an air strip in the Marshall Islands in the South Pacific. As their supply route was blocked by US air-raids, they slaughtered two Koreans and ate their flesh, saying it was 'whale meat'. When other Koreans protested, the Japanese killed them. The dead men were draftees from Ryosu in South Jolla Province.” (*Rodong Sinmun*, dated February 25, 1992.)

Large amount of materials showing the barbarism committed by Japanese troops in the past have come to light one after another.

The State Archives and the War Museum of Australia house data on over 100 cases of cannibalism committed by Japanese soldiers in New Guinea during World War II. Regarding this, the Korean Central News Agency reported as follows on August 19, 1992:

“It is reported that recently secret documents providing evidence of the atrocities committed by Japanese soldiers during World War II were found in the State Archives of Australia. An Australian scholar found the documents on over 100 cases after about half a year of searching. These documents contain evidence that at the end of World War II Japanese troops in New Guinea ate large amounts of human flesh. Among the documents is a secret Japanese army report which said that the human flesh of persons other than enemy military personnel should not be eaten. There was also found a top secret written order which an infantry regiment of the Japanese army stationed in New Guinea sent to the commanders of all units concerning the eating of human flesh.

“Besides, there was testimony by a soldier of the

Australian army, who found immediately after a battle against the Japanese the remains of a fellow soldier whose body had been dismembered. A prisoner of war testified that he had witnessed a scene of the eating of human flesh.

“According to the records, the victims of cannibalization by Japanese soldiers were classified into three categories—Australian soldiers who had engaged the Japanese army, Indians and other Asian prisoners of war who had been commandeered for construction work, and natives of New Guinea who were regarded as people who had not collaborated with the Japanese army,” (*Rodong Sinmun*, dated August 20, 1992.)

Cannibalism was not an accidental atrocity conducted by individual soldiers in confusion of war but criminal behaviour organized by the Japanese government and military authorities. At the same time, it did not happen on one front or on one island in the South Pacific only, but was a common criminal act which took place on all fronts.

The Tokyo trial revealed to the public an order from a battalion commander belonging to the Okada-led unit, which was said to have fallen into the hands of the US army in Manila on February 24, 1945. The order reads as follows:

“1) Do not miss any chance to blow up or set fire to in case the enemy enters.

“2) Dispose of Philippine people with small quantities of ammunition after gathering them in one place as far as possible. Gather them in houses, which will then be set on fire or blown up. Throw their corpses into rivers, because that is the easiest method of disposing of them.”

This gives us a glimpse of the last battlefield in the Philippines where the frenzied Japanese soldiers, fear-stricken at the US army's advance and at guerrilla actions, fought desperately.

The data offered by the prosecutors concerning the situation at the time include a statement by Private First Class Yanagizawa of the Japanese army, who had been given the order: "Fight to the last, even if you have to eat human flesh. But if you eat the flesh of one of our men, you shall be punished with death." In addition, a Japanese officer ordered his men to hold their positions in the Aidabe area of New Guinea to the last even if they had to eat the flesh of natives or even of their own men.

Hearing this, the Japanese journalists who were covering the Tokyo trial commented that it reminded them of the legend about Adachigahara. This story is a legendary tale that in the old times a witch stayed at the field around a peaceful village at the foot of Adatara Mountain in Adachi County, Hukushima Prefecture of Japan and killed people to eat their flesh.

The materials revealed at the Tokyo trial included evidence that at the San Diego fortress in Manila Bay the Japanese army skinned a prisoner's hand and forced him to eat the skin.

The cannibalistic atrocities committed by the Japanese army were serious war crimes unprecedented in the history of war and also crimes against the decency of mankind.

4. CONCLUSION

On November 12, 1948 the Tokyo trial handed down its verdicts on the senior war criminals of Japan. Seven men, including Tojo, were sentenced to death by hanging, 16 persons, including Kito, to life imprisonment and two other persons to imprisonment for definite terms.

Overseas comments made in those days on the sentences still afford a significant lesson. The point is that the doubt about the character of the Japanese nation has not been cleared up.

The editorial of Manila's *Evening Chronicle* on the Tokyo trial on November 13, 1948, stated, "Although Hitler and Mussolini died and Tojo was executed, there is no guarantee that some other persons will not take their place. The capacity for conducting an aggressive war finds itself in the national character of the people of a country and the environment they live in rather than in the leader of that country. It is necessary to consider the characters of the two nations, Japan and Germany." (*Tokyo Trial*, Vol. 2, p. 49.)

An *AP* dispatch dated of the 12th of December from Manila and two Manila newspapers published on the same date commented on the sentence of death handed down on Tojo as follows:

The *Chronicle* (Phillipine-owned) wrote, "The

current trial was a trial conducted by the conqueror. But the conqueror was not the United States, nor the Soviet Union nor China. The true conqueror was freedom, justice and humanity.” (*Ibid.*)

The *Manila Breathing* (American-operated) wrote, “Tojo thinks that the crime he committed was only to be defeated in the war. He repents of this. We wonder whether the Japanese people, too, have this thought. We fear that not enough has been done to impress on the minds of people that the planning and execution of a war is to bring on the perpetrators capital punishment, which is the principle that underlies the trial.” (*Tokyo Trial*, Vol. 2, p. 50.)

It cannot be considered that the comments of these newspapers expressing doubt about the character of the Japanese nation are excessive. Reviewed from the viewpoint of the present time, 50 years after the war, these editorials published immediately after the Tokyo trial were entirely just.

The Tokyo trial directly dealt with 25 defendants. At the same time, it indirectly demanded that the nation in general, which supported its so-called “national policy” actively or passively, or followed it, should make grave reflection.

Not a few persons among the Japanese authorities, nevertheless, now speak of “reflection” on or “apology” for the aggression and war policy of the former Japan, but often make remarks justifying and cosmetizing the crimes of the past, and part of the Japanese nation sympathizes with them. Even now, half a century after the war ended, Japan has not apologized nor paid even a penny in indemnities for her past invasion and

occupation of Korea, maintaining illegal colonial rule over it and thus inflicting untold misfortunes and sufferings, human and material damage as well as spiritual harm* on the Korean people. This can be considered direct consequences of their attitude.

*The rice of which the Japanese imperialists plundered Korea every year amounted to ten million *sok*. They carried away 1,709,000 *sok* of soy beans in 1929 and 600,000 tons of cotton in 1911-1942. They took away 578,920 head of Korean cattle in 1921-1930, 2,688,880 tons of fish in 1910-1920 (apart from 200-300 whales which they caught every year) and 30 million cubic metres of timber in 1931-1943.

Pursuing the policy of reducing the Korean people to the status of subjects of the empire, they forced them to change their names and worship at Shinto (the Japanese native religion). They went so far as to force them to adopt the Japanese language as their “mother tongue”.

Japan has established diplomatic relations with the Southeast Asian countries she occupied militarily during World War II, but these countries still claim compensation from Japan. Claim for compensation for the victimized “comfort women” is a typical example of this.

Indonesia, which concluded a separate peace treaty and reparations agreement with Japan in 1958, had registered 16,880 former “comfort women” as of the end of 1995, and is demanding compensation for them. Not only Indonesia, but also other countries are claiming compensation one after another.*

*The Japanese authorities speak as if the claim for the state responsibility and compensation for the “comfort women” had been settled by the San Francisco Peace Treaty and the “bilateral treaties” concluded separately with the victim countries on the basis of it and the “joint statements”; but that is not true.

International treaties have binding power only on the signatory powers; not on non-signatory powers or third powers. Consequently, Korea and China, which did not take part in the San Francisco Peace Treaty, and Indonesia, which did not ratify the treaty, are not under obligations stipulated in the treaty. Stipulating Japan’s obligation to pay reparations and compensation related to war crimes, Clause 1 of Article 14 of the treaty provides for delay in war reparations payment, since Japan’s wealth at that time was not enough for her to pay reparations. This provision stemmed from the consideration that Japan was unable to pay enormous war reparation immediately, her economy having been destroyed in the war. Particularly, the provision was entirely a product of the “Cold War” and derived from the Asia strategy and world domination strategy of the United States, which encouraged Japan to rearm so that the US could use her as the “shield of Asia”. The then US Secretary of State Dulles clearly said, “Reparations are not binding. It is the US government’s intention to expedite Japan’s armament.” Therefore, the provision does not afford any legal ground for divesting Japan of her responsibility to pay war reparations and compensation.

In March 1995, at the National People's Congress, the Chinese foreign minister said that waiving the claim to property stipulated in the China-Japan Joint Statement means waiving the claim to war reparations between the two countries, but does not include claims for private property, and so there is no need to check the people's demands for civilian claims for compensation.

Considering that the issue of the "comfort women" would be debated at the 52nd Session of the UN Human Rights Committee, to be held in Geneva on April 6, 1996, Japan wrote to the US Secretary of State, asking his support for Japan. But the United States retorted on her, wondering why she stressed and attached importance to the account "the matter had already been settled".

Historical facts prove the inevitable consequences of Japan not recognizing her past crimes honestly and not settling the issues of the past completely.

Japan has not settled the issues of the past, and refuses to face them, because after the war militarism was not liquidated but has been revived in Japan.

This presents a marked contrast to Germany on the issue of postwar settlement.

After the war, Germany branded Nazism as a crime, declared that it had broken away from it, paid compensation to Nazi victims and continues to do so.

Germany has enacted laws giving assistance to war victims, which have been revised several times and are assisting war victims, regardless of nationality and soldiers and civilians.

In September 1951, in the federal parliament the German Chancellor made public a statement to the

effect that most of the German people hated the crimes committed against the Jews and are under a liability for moral and material compensation for the crimes committed in the name of their nation even though they did not take any part in them.

In September 1952, on the basis of that statement, West Germany concluded the Luxemburg Treaty, by which she was to pay three billion marks to Israel, 450 million marks to the Jewish Council Claiming Material Compensation from Germany in installments over 15 years.

Later West Germany concluded a treaty on compensation for victims of the Nazis with Norway and Denmark in 1959; with Greece, France and Belgium in 1960; with Britain and Switzerland in 1961; with Sweden in 1964—with 12 Western European countries in all.

Germany stated her intention of concluding similar treaties with Eastern European countries after 1969.

The above-mentioned compensation has moral significance in that it is compensation for the crimes of Nazi Germany. Apart from this, war reparations to compensate Germany's enemies are specified in the London Treaty concluded in February 1953. Thus Germany is under a liability to compensate 32 countries.

The economic burden of the Luxemburg and London treaties was a very heavy one for West Germany after the war, but she has fulfilled her obligations well, gaining the trust of the world community.

The West German government had paid 77 billion marks by 1986, and agreed to pay in total 102,653 million marks by the year 2000.

Apart from this, the West German government paid 48 billion dollars to Jews who had survived the holocaust and their families in 1952, in accordance with the treaty concluded with the World Jewish Council. In addition, the movement for claiming compensation against West German civilian enterprises continued. The Farben group, AEG, Siemens and Medar paid 51,930,000 marks to 14,878 Jewish workers. Frik Konzern paid five million marks to the Jewish Council for Claims for Material Compensation from Germany (headquarters in New York). The Benz company donated 20 million marks to the Jewish Council and the Belgian Red Cross.

As mentioned above, in Germany the government, enterprises and civilians assume an honest attitude toward the issue of the postwar settlement.

In Japan, too, legal measures for postwar settlement were taken. There are a dozen of such laws, including assistance to War Invalids and Families of the War Dead Act, Pension and Other Privileges for Bereaved Families of Former Military Service Personnel Act, Special Grants for Wives of the War Dead Act, and Special Grants for Parents of the War Dead Act.

In accordance with many of the postwar settlement acts, Japan disburses a total of about two thousand billion *yen* a year. She makes very handsome payments to former military personnel (such payments in 1986 amounted to 1,600 billion *yen*), but pays very little to civilians. Japan assists its own people, but not the Korean people who were commandeered or conscripted to be soldiers or military employees as “Japanese subjects” and “legitimate sons of the Emperor” and

forced to work like slaves, or other Asian peoples.

In the postwar settlement acts of the US and European countries there is no provision for nationality or racial discrimination. In contrast, the postwar settlement acts of Japan can be said to be obviously militaristic and chauvinistic. Such is the behaviour of the present Japanese authorities who do not “recognize” nor “acknowledge” the war crimes of the former Japan.

Such vile behaviour of the Japanese authorities originates in the fact that Japan has not broken away from militarism but intends to hold fast to its “tradition” or “orthodoxy”, whereas Germany recognized Nazism as a crime, and resolutely broke away from it.

In their understanding of history, there are many manifestations among the Japanese of justification of their colonial rule in the past and of glossing over militarism.

At the talks between south Korea and Japan (the third round, October 6-21, 1953) Kuboda, head of the Japanese delegation, made such absurd remarks as: “The Japanese colonial rule greatly benefited the modernization of Korea”, and “It was a violation of international law for Korea to become independent from Japan before the San Francisco Treaty came into effect.” This led to the breaking off of the talks and astonished the people of the world.

Later, during the seventh round of talks between south Korea and Japan, Takasuki, head of the Japanese delegation, caused a worldwide sensation, by saying, “It is reportedly claimed that Japan should apologize for her rule of Korea in the past. But Japan, too, has

something to say. Japan obviously ruled Korea. But Japan did so with a view to doing good things, to making Korea better. Japan's effort was frustrated by the war. It would have been good if Japan had possessed Korea about 20 years longer."

Such a way of thinking is directly reflected in successive Japanese prime ministers' understanding of the aggressive war, although there are certain differences in its manifestation.

Tanaka Kakuei (prime minister July 1972-November 1974): "An answer to the question whether the war was aggressive or not awaits the appraisal of future historians (Remark in the House of Representatives Budget Committee on February 2, 1973).

Miki Takeo (prime minister December 1974-December 1976): "We should reflect on the war because such a war should not be repeated." (Remark in the House of Representatives Budget Committee on January 30, 1976.)

Fukuda Takeo (prime minister December 1976-December 1978): "I cannot say whether it was an aggressive war or not. My understanding is that Japan did a very lamentable thing." (Remark in the House of Representatives Budget Committee on October 18, 1978.)

Suzuki Jenko (prime minister July 1980-November 1982): "I think I should seriously reflect, and now do so, on the past acts of Japan. Although I reflect, feeling keenly the responsibility, what is important is that Japan's sincere behaviour and her future practice should be considered." (Remark in the House of Councillors Accounts Committee on September 14, 1982).

Nakasone Yasuhiro (prime minister November 1982-November 1987): "I said that the so-called Pacific War, the great East Asian war, was a wrong war, but not that it was a necessary war." (Remark in the House of Representatives Budget Committee on October 29, 1985.)

Takeshida Noboru (prime minister November 1987-June 1989): "As far as I know, I deem it very difficult to give a comprehensive definition of this war scientifically," and "As to recognizing it as an aggressive war, I deem it to be an issue to be appraised by future historians." (Remark in the House of Representatives Budget Committee on February 18, 1989.)

Kaifu Toshiki (prime minister August 1989-November 1991):

Question: Do you recognize that the Pacific War was an aggressive war caused by Japan? Answer: "I have such an understanding. We should reflect on history. I intend to apologize openheartedly for the offence Japan committed, which you mentioned." (Remark in the House of Representatives Budget Committee on May 17, 1990.)

Miyazawa Kiichi (prime minister November 1991-July 1993): "We caused enormous damage to our neighbouring countries in the war. It is a fact. We cannot deny the aggressive character of the acts of our country in the past." (Remark at the plenary meeting of the House of Representatives on January 29, 1992.)

Hosogawa Morihiro (prime minister August 1993-April 1994): "I admit that the Pacific War was an aggressive and wrong war." (Remark at the first press interview held in the prime minister's residence on August 10, 1993.)

“I once again reflect seriously on and apologize for the aggression and colonial rule of Japan in the past, which caused unbearable sufferings to many people.” (Remark at the plenary meeting of the House of Representatives on August 23, 1993.)

Hatta Tsudomu (prime minister April 1994-June 1994): “Why cannot the ‘aggressive war’ be said to be ‘aggressive acts’? As it resulted in causing untold sufferings, I reflect on and apologize for it. At the same time, I swear that such event shall not be repeated. Why are you so scrupulous about wording?” (Remark in the House of Representatives Budget Committee on May 24, 1994.)

Murayama Tomiichi (prime minister June 1994-January 1996): “As I pointed out in the policy speech, I deem it important to make efforts to create world peace, with determination not to wage war from the standpoint of renewing the understanding of and reflecting seriously on the fact that the aggressive acts and colonial rule of our country brought untold sufferings to many people.” (Remark at the plenary meeting of the House of Representatives on July 21, 1994.)

“Our country plunged the nation into a life-and-death crisis by framing the state policy wrongly, and embarking on the path of war during a certain period in the past. Colonial rule and aggression caused enormous damage and sufferings to the people of many countries, particularly of the Asian countries. I once again reflect seriously on it, and express a sincere apology for it.” (Remark at a press interview held in the prime minister’s residence on August 15, 1995.)

As seen above, the successive Japanese prime ministers’ understanding of the history of the aggressive

war and colonial rule of the former Japan, and the misfortune and sufferings of the people caused by it can be divided into two categories. To the first category belong those who doubt the crime of “aggressive war” (those who belong to this category, in essence, affirm the aggressive nature of the war). Those who belong to the second category deem it necessary to “reflect” on and “apologize” for the aggressive war and colonial rule, but all avoid speaking about compensation for the misfortune, sufferings and damages caused by it. What is common to those of both categories is that they are not basically free from the view of history of the Japanese militarists.

This was proved once again by Japan’s “Diet resolution 50 years after the war”, which was passed by the House of the Representatives of Japan on June 9, 1995. It only said, “In the light of the numerous instances of colonial rule and aggressive acts in the history of the modern world, we must understand the sufferings the acts of our country in the past caused to other nations, particularly to the Asian nations, and reflect seriously on this.” The “resolution” was called a “resolution on not engaging in war”, which does not refer to a commitment to an apology, compensation or renunciation of war, and in which was inserted the odd phrase “transcending differences in views on history.”

Such is the craftiness of the Japanese authorities.

The US newspaper *New York Times* wrote, “... The resolution is not likely to convince Japan’s neighbours, being a triumph of elaborately framed ambiguity rather than a sincere apology.” It jeered at the resolution, saying that instead of the word apology it used the word

“reflection”, which is used in Japan for minor affairs, as when a child fails to do his or her home work.

Toward the end of 1995, a debate was held in the UN about the deletion of the “enemy states” clause of the UN Charter.

The “enemy states” clause is considered by some people to be obsolete because many years have passed since the adoption of the UN Charter and many changes have taken place in the international political arena.

The issue of elimination of the “enemy states” clause is not an issue to be considered from the standpoint of time, but is a serious political matter related to the settlement of the issue of the past of the countries defined as “enemy states” in the UN Charter. Therefore, the “enemy states” clause can not become obsolete as long as the issue of the past is not settled.

Even now, after half a century, only Japan of the countries defined as “enemy states” in the UN Charter does not recognize the past filled with crimes nor does it make any serious attempt to settle the issue of the past.

In the past, Japan committed a grave crime of invading Asian countries and opposing humanity.

Particularly during her over 40 years of colonial rule over Korea, Japan commandeered over 8.4 million people for forced labour and for cannon fodder, murdered over one million people and enslaved 200,000 women as “comfort women” for the Japanese army.

This brought untold sufferings to the entire Korean people, in the north and the south.

Therefore, if Japan, which has never made a satisfactory apology or compensation, is absolved of her responsibility for her past crimes, it will be an

unpardonable insult to the Korean people and the entire people of Asia, because it ignores their inveterate grievance against Japan.

In addition, the issue of elimination of the “enemy states” clause is a serious political issue related to the peace and security of mankind.

Japan has still not settled the issue of the crimes of the past which it committed against the Asian people, and has not made an official commitment never to commit such crimes again.

Some members of the Japanese Diet even openly say that Japan’s invasion of the Asian countries was intended to “liberate” these countries from the colonial rule of the West and, consequently, any apology for the past would be a “distortion of history” and sow the seeds of misfortune for the “future of Japan”.

All these facts show that Japan has no intention of reflecting on the crimes of the past, which gives rise to concern that Japan might again commit such crime if an opportunity offers.

Therefore, absolution of Japan from her crimes goes against the objectives and principles of the UN Charter for peace and security in the world, because it is tantamount to justifying Japan’s contention designed to embellish her aggression and crimes, and stirring her ambition for invading others once more.

It cannot be overlooked that the donations Japan makes to the UN afford no grounds for absolving Japan of her crimes of the past.

If the world community covers up Japan’s crimes of the past by equivocation, on the plea that she is rich and makes donations to the UN, it will serve to prove that

money is the decisive factor in settling all issues in the UN.

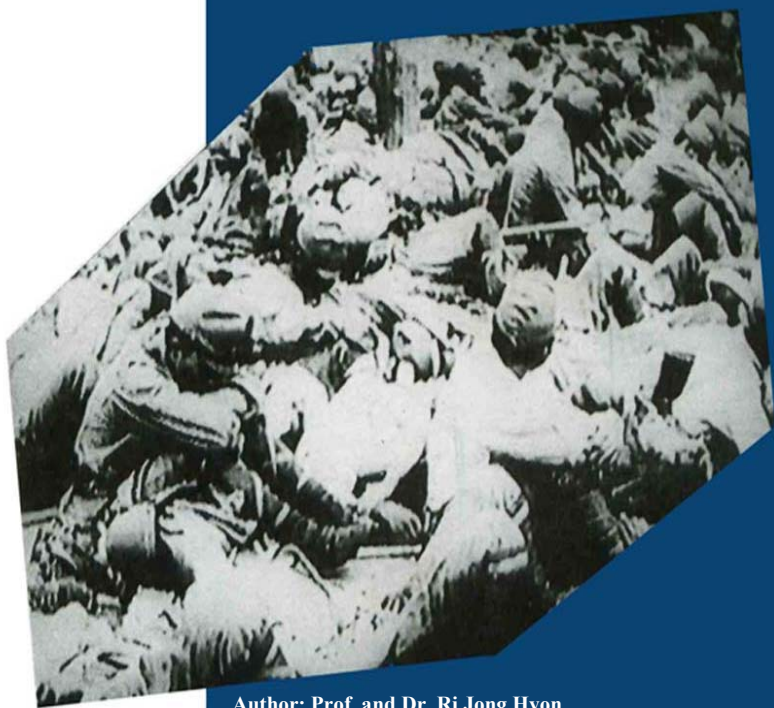
This will mean encroachment upon the justice and impartiality which are the life and soul of the UN.

Japan ought to gain the trust of the Korean and other Asian people by making an open-hearted reflection on, and sincere apology and sufficient compensation for her past.

Today this is Japan's political and moral obligation to the world and history.

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